LESSON-1 (A)

JAIN RELIGION IN THE PRE-HISTORIC PERIOD

Jaina Religion in the pre-historic period Jainism is one of the ancient and prominent living religions in the world. To understand its origin from the pre-historic period and the different stages of its subsequent development, we have to consider the traditional history and archeological researches. The beginnings of the Jaina religion are rooted deep in the past. It is important to know the nature of the *śramana* culture, the place where it originated, and the person who propogated it. In this regard the opinion of the learned scholar Dr. Jyoti Prasad Jaina may be considered.

Jaina religion is a very ancient religion of India. Scholars differ regarding its antiquity. Besides, the ancient history of India is also not very clear. Under the circumstances, the real and accurate evaluation and grasping of the conditions prevalent thousands of years ago is in itself a herculean task. For the knowledge and understanding of the conditions in the olden times there are two methods—1. The history that we get through tradition and 2. The history that we get through research methods and through a chaeological analysis. In this lesson we will try to find out when Jaina religion originated, what the traditions prior to it were and what types of development in different periods took place in it.

To know all these things on the basis of Indian historical classics will not be sufficient. We will have to resort to the devices by which attempts have been made to make the ancient history of India clearer. What is *śramaṇa* culture? When and where did it originate? By whom was it originated? These are some of the questions, the answers of which were attempted, adopting the historical view-point, by some scholars in the past 50 years. One of these scholars is Dr. Jyoti Prasad Jain, who has endeavoured to give a new and more rational form to the history of India, taking it as a whole. In the present lesson we are discussing the ancient environment of the *śrāmaṇya* and the origin of the Jaina religion, taking his research work and thinking as a basis. Although it is very difficult to say that all the historians will undisputably accept the history of the prehistoric India, yet this new presumption that has come, is worth thinking, considering and undertaking research for all.

1.1.0 The Environment of the Śramaņa Culture

In his book *Indian History: A View-Point*, Dr. Jyoti Prasad Jaina has, in an unbiased manner, thrown light on the initial stage of the *Sramana* culture and Jaina religion. We are presenting his views here.

1.1.1 The researches of Anthropology and archaeology, have made it clear that in olden times, when the human civilization was beginning to dawn and was taking shape, the human race, in India was divided into three main sections, the ideas, culture and thoughts which were quite different from one another. One section resided in the eastern plains of Northern India, the boundaries of which extended from the *doaba* of the *Garigā* and the *Jamunā* up to *Ariga* and *Magadha*. The people living here were peace-loving vegetarians and believed in this cosmos and beyond cosmos', the theory of living beings, the existence of soul, and the theory of re-incarnation. They worshipped idols and venerated great men and saints. They believed in keeping in control both the body and the mind through yoga and spiritual practices. They believed in non-violence and non-attachment to worldly things. Their culture was particularly drawn towards spiritualism. It is very likely that the physical and geographical conditions, the climate of the area in which they lived, the easy availability and abundance of all types of vegetation and having no need to labour hard for livelihood and their distinctive intellectual faculty—have been responsible for their particular thinking and mentality. In spite of their great

development in that early period, their ideas and beliefs were vague, disorderly, brief and simple. This early phase of the human race was known as *mānava*. The Manus and the *Kulkarās* they guided and led people from time to time. From the spiritual and the intellectual point of view, the people belonging to this section began to call themselves *Āryās* the last of the *manus* and the first human Tīrthaṅkar R ṣabha Deva was born in this human race in the territory of Central India. It is believed that he introduced a life-style and propounded the theory of *karma* to this section of the human race.

The other section of the people was restricted mostly to the mountain regions of the north, the south and the east. From the spiritual point of view they were inferior to the 'mānavās' but far superior in crafts and industries and arts. In these fields they had made sufficient progress with greater rapidity than the mānavās had done, and even after the appearance of the mānavās in the field of action (karma bhūmī), they maintained their superiority. However then they continued to regard the mānavās their spiritual and religious guides and teachers. The *mānavās* developed knowledge and the *vidyādharās* developed science. The *vidyādhara* community consisted of nāgās, rikṣās, yakṣās and vānarās. This community gradually spread to the different islands in the Indian Ocean and other places. With the passage of time this vidyādhara community was given the name *sravidās*. There had been close cordial relations between the *mānavās* and the *vidyādharās* from the very beginning. Marriages also took place between them with the result that there was a mixture of blood. Both the communities were benefitted. The vidyādharās took advantage of the knowledge of the mānavās whereas the latter benefitted from the science developed by the vidyādharās. There was yet one more branch of the human race, which, in the romote past had separated from the original human race of the central regions and had moved to the mountainous regions. This community lagged behind for a long time in both knowledge and science. Rearing and breeding cattle was its main occupation. It was nomadic in nature and many of its groups spread up to Central Asia, starting from their north-western original inhabitat and mount crossing the passes of the Hindukush. One of these branches settled in the north, the other in Greece in the west and the third in Iran. All these branches remained in their respective areas and began developing their own, independent civilization. Due to their environment, conditions of living and life-style, they grew materialistic. They were worshippers of nature and the powers of nature. To took on the habit of meat-eating (non-vegetarian) and become violent in nature. They came to be known as ' $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ ' or ' $Indo-\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ '. The and became neither indulged in the pursuit of the knowledge of self, like the manavas residing in the central regions, nor were they skilled and efficient, like the vidyādharās, in science and arts. That was the reason for the belated development of their civilization.

Nābhisut Rṣabha Deva of Ayo dhyā put an end to the uncivilized and savage period of the stoneage. He introduced the action-based human civilization in which knowledge and science occupied an important place. The whole region from Ayodhyā to Hastināpur was the centre of this new civilization. He asked the mānavās to follow the six-fold path of the worldly affairs of agriculture, craft, commerce, knowledge and the art of wielding swords and preached to follow the six-fold path of religion (worship of gods, devotion to the teachers, self-meditation, self-control, penance and charity). He established law and order in the state and in the society and sowed the seeds of the development of civic and urban civilization. He also gave instructions regarding the division of the society into Kṣatriya, Vaiśya and Śudra taking into consideration their occupation and the work they did. He himself was called 'Ikṣwāku' and it was from him that the oldest 'Ikṣwāku' dynasty of the Kṣatriyas, the warrior race of India, originated. He preached valuable sermons regarding this world and the other world and adopted the neutral 'Yoga Marg' and attained salvation on Mount Kailāś.

King (Emperor) Bharata, son of R sabha Dev for the first time brought India under a single umbrella. Hence, this country came to be known as 'Bhārat Varşa' after him and the Bharat Dynasty of the ancient Āryās started. The name of another son of R sabha was dravid who is said to be the fore-father of the dravidās of the later period. It is very likely that after marrying a vidhyadhar girl, he might have settled among the vidyādharās and become their leader and in course of time, might have come to be known as dravidās. It is

also said that his son Ark-Kirthi was the founder of the 'Sūrya' Dynasty and his nephew, Somyaśā, was the founder of the 'Candra' Dynasty and another relative, Kuru, was the founder of the 'Kuru' Dynasty.

Preached the simple religion of the self and of the soul, and of non-violence. The religion was also known as the R sabha Dharma (The religion of R sabha), *Arhat* Dharma, *Magga* (ex) or the way of salvation and joy. The culture, inspired and enlivened by it was known as the *śraman* culture. AjitNātha and the other successors of R sabha promoted, developed and nourished this culture and propagated the aforesaid *Yoga Dharma* which laid emphasis on simple and good conduct.

1.1.2 The Indus Valley Civilization

The aforesaid *framana* culture was gradually developing in the central regions side by side, the materialistic and civilian civilization of the vidyādharas, which was influenced by the R sabha Dharma and culture, were also developing in the basin of the river *Narmadā* on the one hand and in the Indus Valley on the other. Recent discovery and research in the Larkana District in the Indus, and in the Montgomery District in the West Punjab, has thrown hight on the existence of a very ancient and highly developed civilization. This civilization, known as Mohen-Jo-Daro, is considered to be the oldest civilization. The archaeologists have discovered a whole city with the beautiful buildings built of solid bricks, and the markets and the squares, an assembly-hall, arms and weapons of different kinds, ornaments, toys, coins and status and many other things. The ancient vidyādharās knew about the farming of wheat and the use of wheat as food-grain. They also grew cotton and made clothes from it. They made ornaments of gold. Scholars are of the opinion that this civilization lasted from 6000 B.C. to 2500 B.C. Uptil now the civilization of the pyramids and the Faraos that developed in the valley of the river Nile in Egypt, and the Sumer civilization that developed in the Valley of the Rivers Dajla-Farat in western Asia, were supposed to be the oldest civilization in the world. But now the Mohen-Jo-Daro civilization that developed in the valley of the river Indus is considered not only older than the two civilizations mentioned above, but also the first civil and industrious civilization of man. The civilizations of Egypt and Sumer developed later on and owe much to the Indus-valley civilization. This civilization is supposed to be of the metallic and stone era.

It appears that this civilization came into being in the period of Tīrthaṅkara Sambhava Nātha. The specific symbol of Sambhava Nātha is horse and the region of the Indus-valley has been known for a long time for its fine horses. Upto the Maurya period there had been a territory Sambhuttara and there lived people belonging to the Sambhava (sambuz) Tribe. Most probably they were the originators of the Indus valley civilization. This civilization was not only Non-vedic and Non-Āryan, but Pre-vedic also. It appears that the people who developed it were the followers of the *Yoga Dharma*, propounded by Rṣabha and were the worshippers of the *Śramaṇa* culture, the ancient *Vidyādharas*or the ancestors of the *dravidians*.

According to Sir John Marshall, 'From the comparative study of the Indus culture, it is undisputably proven that there was no relation whatsoever between the two cultures'. In *Vedic Dharma*, idols are not worshipped whereas in *Mohen-Jo-Daro* and in *Harappā*, idol-worship is apparent. In the houses found in *Mohen-Jo-Daro*, there are no 'hawan-kundas'. In the ruins of *Mohen-Jo-Daro*, the figures of naked men imprinted on them, are found in large numbers. According to Sir John Marshal they are the idols of the ancient yogis. Another scholar is of opinion that these idols clearly show that in the metallic and the stone era the people residing in the Indus Valley not only practiced yoga, but worshipped the idols and states of the yogis also. According to Ram Prasad *Cardra* the idols of the gods, imprinted on the coins in the sitting posture, are not only in Yoga Mudra and prove that Yoga was in practice in the Indus Valley in those far-off times, but the idols in the standing posture, taking the support of a sword are in the posture of 'kāyotsarg' and this posture of meditation is particularly a posture of the Jaina religion. This 'kāyotsarga' posture has been frequently mentioned in the Ādi-Purāṇa in connection with the penance of R sabha Dev or Vṛṣabh Dev.

The ancient idols of the Jaina *tīrtharikarās* in the standing posture, taking the support of a sword are found in the early period of the Christian era. Idols of the kings with their hands hanging, in ancient Egypt are found of the earlier dynasties. The figure in these ancient Egyptian idols and in the idols found in Kuroi in ancient Greece, is the same, but they lack the expression of kāyotsarg and neutrality that is found in the figures imprinted on the coins found in the Indus Valley and in the idols of the Jinas that are in the posture of $k\bar{a}yotsarg$. The word Reabha means Vreabha (the bull) and Vreabha is the symbol of the Tirthankara Reabha Dev. Actually, the idols of the yogis in kāyotsarg posture with a Vṛṣabha (the bull) imprinted on many coins have been found and they show that they are the idols of the Great Yogi R sabha, having a Vṛṣabha with him. The meaning, of the word 'R sabha' or 'Vṛṣabha' is religion also, perhaps because religion in the world, first of all, appeared in the form of Tirthankar R sabha. According to Prof. Ranade, 'R sabha Dev was a Yogi whose total indifference to body was the foremost cause of the attainment of the self. In the Yoga Marga of the Indian saints of the later period also, Risabha Devihas been considered the propounder of the said Marga. Frof. Pran-Nath Vidyālankār not only considers the religion of the Indus-Valley related to Jainism but also tells about a coin (No. 449) found there, on which, according to him, was imprinted the word 'Jineśwara' (Jis insereh). According to him, the goddesses 'Śrim' (Jh), 'Hrim', 'Klim' of the Jaina tradition also had a great significance and reputation. Idols of the Yogis, covered with the hood of a snake have also been found. These idols may be of the seventh Tīrthankara Supārśva. His symbol is Swastik (C) and this appears to have been a very popular symbol in the Indus-Valley. Even the roads and streets are found in the form of a Swastik (C).

Archaeology

Some scholars are of opinion that the remains that have been found from the digging at *Mohen-Jo-Daro* have a connection with the *śramaṇa* or Jaina tradition. Although this has not been unanimously agreed upon, yet a minute Observation and thinking shows that they are related to the *śramaṇa* tradition. The pictures on the cells 13, 14, 15, 18, 19 and 22 on the twelfth plate in Sir John Marshall's *'Mohen-Jo-Dara* and its civilization' (Part-I) suggest this.

There is an astounding similarity in the idols and statues found in the indus Valley and those of the *kuśāna* period. The posture of '*kāyotsarga*' is a conjibution of the Jaina tradition. Most of the Jaina idols have been found in this posture. The characteristics of the idols found from the digging in *Mohen-Jo-Daro* are standing, the posture of *kāyotsarga*, naked and in meditation. The method of *kāyotsarga* by remaining standing is much in practice in the Jaina tradition. This posture is called '*sthān*' or '*urdhwa sthān*'. What has been called Posture by *Pataĥjali*, is called '*sthān*' by the Jaina *Ācāryās*. '*sthān*' means to be devoid of motion. There are three types of absence of motions—

- 1. 'Urdhwa Sthān'-Kāyotsarga in the standing position.
- 2. 'Niseedan' Sthān -Kāyotsarga in the sitting position and
- 3. 'Śayan-Sthān' Kāyotsarga in the sleeping position.

'Paryank Āsana or Padmāsana' (The posture of the lotus) is a special characteristic of the Jaina idols. There used to be difference in the postures of yoga in different religions. Keeping these differences in view, Ācārya Heracandra wrote, 'O Lord! The persons who are the followers of some pertirthikas have not been able to learn even the two of your Yoga-Mudras (the posture of the lotus and the posture in which all attention is centred on the tip of the nose). What else can they be excepted to learn?'

The ancient Orgive idol found in Delphi, is in the posture of *kāyotsarg*, is in deep meditation and his hair, like that of R ṣabha, is falling on his shoulders. Dr. Kalidas Nāg finds it similar to a Jaina idol. This idol is about ten thousand years old (plate no. 5, Discovery of Asia). The bust of Apollo Reshaph (Greece) too is similar to it. All these prove the antiquity of the *śramana* culture.

There existed prior to the Vedik-period, the tribe of the nāgās. The nāgās the yakshas, the gandharvas, the kinnaras and the dravidians were basically Indian and the followers and worshippers of the śramans. Their culture and civilization preceded the Rgvedic culture and civilization and was independent. The Tīrtharkarās Rṣabha and Supārśva etc. whom they worshipe, had also been in the Pre-Vedic period. Taking into consideration the archaeological evidences, we come to the conclusion that the śramana culture and tradition are Pre-vedic.

Some scholars doubt whether the *Mohen-Jo-Daro* civilization being of the Pre-Āryan period. According to them, the original place of the Āryās is India, and the Indus-Valley civilization is the primary stage of the Āryan civilization. But the majority is of the opinion that the Indus-Valley civilization was not only *non-āryan* but it certainly was Dravidian. Its language, religion, culture, all were Dravidian. According to Dr. Heras, the ancient name of *Mohen-Jo-Daro* was Nandur (Makar Desh) and the Nandur script was the first script of the world and its civilization was the first civilization. Dr. Heras considers this civilization to be Dravidian. The thing to be ntoed in this connection is that 'Makara' (crocodile) is the symbol of the ninth Tithankara Puṣpadanta. John Marshall thinks the civilization originated and developed in the central region of North India to be the mother of the Indus-Valley civilization. Prof. S. Shrikantha Shastri says, 'The ancient Indus-Valley civilization, with its worship of the *Diga imbara* religion, Yoga Marg and the symbols like the Pṛṣabha (bull), has a strong similarity with the Jaina Religion. It, therefore, originally is non-āryan or at least non-vedic.'

Anyway, it seems that the people who developed this Indus-Valley divilization were the people belonging to the ancient vidyadhara Tribe who may be said to be the forefathers of the dravidas. But the people who gave them inspiration and who guided them were the original $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$, belonging to the mānava Tribe, of the central Region. They were the worshippers of the self-religion of the Tirthankaras and the śramana culture. The period from Sambhava Nātha, the third Tīrthankara to Puspadanta, the Ninth Tīrthankara, was the period of its development. Almost at this very time another civilization, the civilization of Harappa, began to develop as a sister civilization in the present Montgomery District of the Punjab. It existed from 3000 B.C. to 2000 B.C. The people, belonging to the civilization of *Harappa* were also Non-Āryans and Non-*Vedic* but in them there might be some element of the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ of the western Regions, who, in due course of time, were going to give birth to the Vedic culture. It was with the people of the Harappa civilization that the newly-developed $Vedic \ Aryar{a}s$ had the first and the fiercest encounter. They are the people who are described as the dasyus, the asurās (the giants) in the Vedic literature. The civilizations of the Sumer, the Assur and the Babuli, which grew one after another in the Western Asia, had a close contact with the civilization of Mohen-Jo-Daro and the contemporary civilization of Harappa. The oldest civilization of Egypt is also of this period. It appears that there certainly was a contact of the Sumerian civilization of the Western Asia with the civilization of Harappa at about the year 2350 B.C. This date is significant for the time calculation of the period. The signs of the Harappa civilization have been found in the basins of the Ganga, the Cambal and the Narmadā rivers, in Western Uttarpradesh (in Hastinapur and in other places, in Western Rajasthan and also in Gujarat and they indicate who wide this civilization was spread). The Jhookar and the other civilizations of some later period are supposed to be the successors of this civilization and after that the Aryans (Indo-Āryans) and their Vedic civilization are supposed to have risen.

1.1.4 The Vedic Civilization

There is great dispute regarding the original place of the $\bar{A}ryans$, but the theory that they were originally the residents of India seems to be more appropriate. They are related to the branch of the ancient $m\bar{a}nav\bar{a}s$ of the central region which had separated from the original branch by moving towards the western region just before the rise of the $m\bar{a}nava$ civilization in the period of R sabha Deva and it remained separated forever. One of its reasons seems that instead of moving towards their original brethren in the East, they moved towards the Western Asian countries. From there they moved towards Northern Asia and Eastern and Northern Europe.

Western Asia was their main centre. When one of their branches got settled in Iran, another branch again came to India. The people of this branch inspired and encouraged and put a new life into their brethren who had already settled in the North-West regions. They settled down permanently at the bank of the river Saraswati, composed the *maritrās* of the *Rgveda* and gave birth to the *Vedic* civilization in which *yajñas* had an important place and which permitted animal sacrifice. According to Prof. K.A. Neelkantha Shastri the *Vedic* period of India is an aspect of the development of the Indo-Iran civilization. This fact is proved by many similarities found in the ancient civilization of Iran and the *Vedic* civilization.

There is a dispute regarding the beginning of the *Vedic* period and the date of the composition of the earlier *Maritrās* or *Rgveda*. According to Max Muller and other scholars, this must have taken place in 1200-1000 B.C. Whereas scholars like Tilak and Jacobi on the basis of Mathematical Astronomy, think it to have happened somewhere between 6000-4000 B.C. Both of these views are said to be exaggerated. The majority around 2000 B.C. and think that the period between 2000 and 1000 B.C. to be the period of development and the climax of the said *Vedic* civilization. In the meanwhile, the ancient hereditary civilization of Egypt, the civilizations of Iran and of China, the Assurand the Khildian civilizations of western Asia, the Mediterranean civilizations of Heiti and Mitani and the Maya civilization of America came into existance and developed.

The primary means of knowing the initial and early development of the Vedic civilization are the 'maritrās' of the Rgveda composed at that time. These 'mantrās' are in the form of praises sung for the forces of Nature that have been personalized (visualized) as gods like *Indra, Varuna* and *Agni*. By studying these *mantrās* we come to know a lot about the religious beliefs, rituals, thinking and conduct, living conditions, the social, economic and political or Ganizations and the worldly history of the $Vedic Ary \bar{a}s$. We get interesting information about their rituals concerning the yajñas, animal-sacrifice, the position of the priest, the Yazmān and the king in the society, the supremacy of one father in the family, the orGanization of small republics, villages or localities, the honourable position of women in the society, the institutions of having more than one wife or husband, the elementary form of a caste-system, different forms of marriage, non-vegetarianism, drinking and gambling. From Rgveda we come to know that there had been cultural and political feuds between the earlier $Vedic \, \bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ and the people of Harappa who were arti-yaznas. War was waged and then peace was established. The Aryas called them as 'dasyus' (Dacoits) and slaves. A significant event of this period is the war of dasragya. Some mention of the ancient Bharatas is also found in Rgyeda. There are some 'mantrās' in the praise of the great Yogi R sabha Dev, the propunder of mānava civilization. But at the same time Lingeshwar has been said to be the enemy of *Indra*. In this first *Ved*, which, with the passage of time, was compiled as *Ric* Samhita, there are 1017 mantrās, divided in ten parts. From the study of a Jaina scirpture we come to know that after Seetal Natha, tenth Tirthankara, the brahminas got themselves separated from the Sramana tradition and developed their own braiming culture and Vedic religion. It is possible that seeing the supreme position of the Brāhminas in the society of the Vedic Āryās, the Brāhminas of the mānava dynasty of the central region got attracted towards them. There seems to be a two-fold influence of the Ardha Māgdhi Prākrit of the central region and of the Irani Prākrit, and of the Irani and the other western languages, on the language of the Vedās. The script that they adopted was Brāhmi, that was invented by the men of the mānava dynasty of India.

1.1.5.1 Asura and Arhat

Before the migration of the $Vedic \, \bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$, there were two types of communities—civilized and uncilvilized. The people belonging to the civilized community lived in villages and towns and those belonging to uncivilized community lived in the forests. The $asur\bar{a}s$, the $n\bar{a}g\bar{a}s$ and the dravids they were all civilized communities. The dasas (slaves) belonged to the uncivilized community. The culture and the civilization of the $asur\bar{a}s$ were highly developed. The $Vedic \, \bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ had to suffer a lot in the beginning due to the bravery and courage of the $asur\bar{a}s$.

The Asurās were the worshippers of the Arhat-religion. It is surprising that there is no clear mention of them in the Jaina literature whereas there is a clear description in the Purāṇās and in the Mahābhārat. asurās

There is a mention of the Asurās being the worshippers of Arkat or Jaina religion in the Viṣṇu-Purāṇa, the Padma-Purāṇa, the Matsya-Purāṇa and the Devi Bhagwat. According to the Viṣṇu Purāṇa, Māyāmoha got the asurās converted to the Arkat religion. The Asura no longer had any faith in the triology of Rg, Yajur and Śāma Veda. They lost faith in the Yajñas and in the animal sacrifice. They began to believe in non-violence. They also began to oppose the funeral rites performed in honour of the dead relatives, and the other rituals.

Māyāmoha of the Viṣṇu Purāṇa was the disciple of some Arhat. He got the asurās converted to the religion of the Arhats. This is also clearly mentioned in the Viṣṇu Purāṇa. The principles in which the asurās began to have faith, were the principles of the Arhat religion.

In the *Viṣṇu-Purāṇa*, an attempt has been made to point the *asurās* in the *Vedic* colours, but this is not agreeable to the *Rgveda*. Here the *asurās* have been described as the enemies of the *Vedic Áryās*.

1.1.5.2 The Asurās and the Vedic \bar{A} ryās

The war of the Devas and the $D\bar{a}navas$ described in the $Ved\bar{a}s$ and the $Pura_{\bar{n}}as$ is symbolic to the war of the Vedic $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ and the Communities that were there prior to the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$. With the arrival of the Vedic $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$, there had been a struggle with the $asur\bar{a}s$ and it continued for three hundred years. The Indra of the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ was not very powerful, so in the beginning, the were defeated.

There has been a long tradition of asura kings in India. They were all devoted to their rituals, highly learned and were the Lords of the world. In the first attack they could not be defeated by the $Vedic\ \bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$. As long as they observed good conduct, and were united, they remained invincible and the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ could not defeat them. But when they lost their virtues, the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ easily conquered them. This fact is illustrated in the dialogue between Indra and $Laksm\bar{\iota}$. When asked by Indra, $Laksm\bar{\iota}$ said, 'Being bound by truth and religion, I formerly lived with the $asur\bar{a}s$. Now that they have lost their sterling character, I renounced them and preferred to live with you. I had been living with the $d\bar{a}navas$ since the beginning of the universe as long as they possessed noble qualities and virtues. Now that they have become slaves of the vices like lust and anger, I have left their company and have abandoned them.' From this it is clear that the $d\bar{a}navas$ or the $Asur\bar{a}s$ enjoyed the ruling-power for a long time and then the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$, who were united, captured it under the leadership of Indra.

The influence of the *Vedic Āryās* was largely felt in North India. Their arrival in South India was at a much later stage, or, we should say, it did not have a large impact. When the Goddess of the Kingdom preferred to live with *Irid:a*, abandoning *Bāli*, the king of the *danavas*, *Iridra* said to *Bāli*, '*Brahmā* has ordered me not to slay you. This is why I am not hitting you on the head with my *vajra* (the weapon of *Iridra*). You may go wherever you like.' Hearing this *Bāli* went in the direction of South and *Iridra* went towards North.

It has been mentioned in the *Padma Purāṇa* too that after adopting Jainism, the *asurās* began to live on the bank of the river *Narmadā*. It is clear from this that the religion of the Arhat got a greater hold in the south, when the *Āryās* became all the more powerful in the north. The moving of the *Asurās* from north to south indicates the similarity of their culture and civilization and those of the *Dravidās*.

1.1.5.3 The *Asurās* and the learning of the self

After the defeat of the *asura* kings who were there prior to the arrival of the *Āryās*, *Indra*, the leader of the *Āryās* said to *Bāli*, *Namuchi* and *Prahlād*, 'Your kingdom has been taken up, you have fallen into the hands of the enemy and yet there is no sign of any sorrow or sadness on your face. How is it so?'

The answer that the *asura* kings gave to this question was the outcome of their knowledge of the self. Bāli, the son of Virocanā, scolded Indra so felicitously that all his pride was shattered and felt much humiliated. Bāli said to Indra, 'O Indra, the king of the gods, your foolishness surprises me. You are, at present, all powerful and you have gained prosperity whereas I have lost all my wealth and prosperity. In such a condition you want to humiliate me by singing your praises. This does not reflect the fame and tradition of your family.'

The way *Namuchi* and *Bāli* remained detached, and free from grief and sorrow in spite of losing their kingdom, was the result of their knowledge of the self. *Indra* was surprised at their patience and composure (*Mahābhārat*, *Śānti Parva*, 227/13).

In the *Mahābhārata*, the *Vedic* ideas have been imposed on the *asurās*, yet their detachment, composure and their capacity of taking grief to their stide reflect their learning of the self and this definitely proves them to be the followers of the *Śramaṇa*-religion.

1.1.6

The opposition and the conflict between the *asurās* and the *Vedic Āryās* was not only geographical and political but also cultural too. The $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ opposed the *Asurās'* principle of non-violence and the *asurās* opposed the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s'$ principle of violence and the rituals of the *yajfrās*.

As the position of the *Vedic Āryās* in India grew stronger, the opposition also grew stronger and fiercer. M. Winternitze has written, 'The reaction against the *Vedās* had started centuries before the Buddha. We get the clear indications of this reaction in the tradition of the Jainas and Jainism had been founded in the year 750 B.C. Here, there is no need to prove false the otherwise credible calculation of the Jainas of the time. Veular was of the opinion that the progress of the *Vedās* (and the *Brānniņa* religion) and the progress of their opposition had been taking place simultaneously and at a parallel level. Unfortunately Veular died before he could prove it in the form of a definite doctrine. (Ancient Indian History, Part-I, Section-1, Page 233).

The *Śramaṇa* culture existed prior to the *Vedic* culture. Therefore, the institution of the *Yaznas* was opposed from the very beginning. If this had not been the case, how could the opposition take place?

According to Ācārya Kṣitimohan Sen. 1. The holy places of pilgrimage, 2. Worship,

- 3. Devotion, 4. The sacredness of the rivers, 5. Tulasī (a holy plant having medicinal properties), 6. The gods related to $a \hat{s} w a t h a$ and vermillion are the things that were not related to the $V e d \bar{a} s$ formerly. The $\bar{A} r y \bar{a} s$ adopted them from the communities that were there prior to them (Racial discrimination in India, Page 75-79).
- 1. In the Śramaṇa tradition the word 'tīrtha' was used for a religious orGaṇīzation and its propounders were known as tīrtharkarās. In the Dīgha Nikāya, Pūraṇa Kaṣyap, Makkhali Gośal, Ajit Keśkambal, Prakrudha Kāṭyāyan, Sanjay Velatthiputra and Nirgranth Jñataputra these six persons have been called tīrthankarās.
- 2. According to Awaśyaka Niryukti (218) the worship of the snake started in the time of Bharata, son of R şabha.
 - 3. Devotion originated in the *dravid* areas. Hence it may also be there prior to the advent of the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$.
- 4. Rivers like *Ganga* and *Jamuna* are not mentioned in the *Vedās* whereas in the *Brāhmiņa* scriptures, they have been regarded as holy rivers.
- 5. In the Jaina Sūtras, Ten dome trees (caitya vṛkṣas) have been said to belong to the gods who reside in houses. Similarly eight dome trees have been said to be belonging to cosmic gods, whereas the Bodhi-tree of Mahatma Buddha has been given great importance from the very beginning. Twenty-four Bodhi-trees of the 24 tīrthaṅkarās of the Jainas are also equally important.

6. Vermillion too was on object used by the naga community prior to the advent of the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$.

In the Śramaṇa literature many descriptions and accounts of rivers, trees etc. are found. Thus we find that the things that have been described as non-vedic by Ācārya Kṛṣiti mohana sena, have been given great important in the Śramaṇa literature. Hence it is not difficult to arrive at the conclusion that what is described as the non-vedic tradition must be the Śramaṇa tradition.

1.1.8 The period of prosperity-From Rāmāyan to Mahābhārat

Gradually, with the passage of time, there developed a sort of friendship between the $Vedic \bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$, the mānavās and the vidyādharās, the natives of India. There was a sort of compromise and they started to have blood relations also. They began to move towards the east and the area from Punjab to north-west became their centre. Their ruling and governing powers also developed. The kingdoms of Kuru-Pancāl were the most important of them all. Awed and defeated by the rapid progress, expansion and the worldly powers of the *Vedic Āryās*, who were bubbling with enthusiasm and zeal, the *nāgās* and other communities of the northwest, got confined to Taxila in the far north and to Pātalpuri, at the bank of the river Indus. In the south they remained as strong and powerful as ever. The *mānavās* of the central regions, who were the worshippers of the Śramana, remained confined to Anga, Magadha and the eastern Uttar-Pradesh. The Vedic Dharma and the Brāhmina culture continued to make progress upto the time of Muni Suvrata the 20th Tirthankara. At the holy place (tīrtha) of Muni Suvrata, Rām Candra, who was the king of Ayodhyā and who belonged to the Sundynasty of the great king Iksāku, tried his level best to co-ordinate the two cultures. Hence Rāma is considered a great mythological man in the Sramana tradition and is regarded as an incarnation of God in the *Vedic* tradition. In the former he is regarded as non-violent and the worshipper of the self, whereas in the latter he is considered to be a protector of the yajñā and also of the people performing them. It was through him that the North-India, culture, harmonious in nature, spread up to the far south. On account of the rise of the Vedic Āryās, the friendship of the mānavās and the vidyādhars, which had been fulled for some time, got revived as the Āryās and the dravidās came into contact with each other.

According to Rgveda, ample indication of the attempts made for the co-ordination and give-and-take of the Vedic culture with the Śramaṇa culture in the rest of the three Vedās Yajurveda, Sāmaveda and Atharvaveda is found. In the Vedās, the eastern Āryās, who worshipped the Śamaṇas and who believed in undertaking fasts, were described as Vrātyās. In the earlier maritrās the Vrātyās have been condemned but the Vedic Kṣatriya kings did not hesitate in making triends and having relations by marriage with the eastern Kṣatriyas. One of the reasons of this co-ordination or compromise seems to be this—in the middle period of the events of the Rāmāyana and the Mahābhārata, the power and influence of the Kṣatriya had enormously increased in the Vedik-Ārya society. Then, kingdoms had spread far and wide and the Brāhmiṇas were elevated to the posts of ministeres and the priests were Brāhmiṇas only. The political power and influence of the Vedic Kṣatriyas was supreme. This was the period of prosperity of the Vedic culture. The destructive war of Mahābhārat not only brought an end to the Vedic period but also decreased the sovereignty of the Vedic Kṣatriyas.

Just as in the beginning of this period Rāma made an admirable attempt to co-ordinate the two cultures. Kṛṣṇa, who belonged to the Yādava dynasty, did the same towards the end of this period. Both of these great men are the symbols of the cultural unity of India. Both of them are the links between the Śramaṇa-Brāhmiṇa and the Brāhmiṇa cultures. Kṛṣṇa is also said to have been born in a similar way in both the traditions. He established friendship and matrimonial alliances with the Vedik-Āryās of the Kuru-Pancāl regions. With the passage of time, he worshipped as an incarnation of God because of his extraordinary diplomatic policy. He has been admired in the Śramaṇa (Jaina) tradition too as Nārāyan, Ardha-Cakri, Trikhanḍi, an excellent Śrāvaka, almighty and allpowerful ideal king of his time and a pious man. Even the Pāṅdavās are said to be the devotees of the Jaina Dharma performing penance towards the end of their lives.

The events of Rāmāyan and Mahābhārat are found to be almost similar, with slight differences in both the Brāhmiṇa and the Jaina traditions and are equally popular. Their plots in both the traditions are supplements of each other. The Vedic literature, the epics of Rāmāyan and Mahābhārat, and the Purāṇas of the Brāhmiṇa tradition are as useful and valuable as the Jaina Purāṇic literature. So are the religious legends. According to Prof. JaiCardra Vidyālankār, the ancient history of India belongs as much to the Jainas who are anti-Vedās as to those who give recognition to them (the Vedās). The ancient tūrthankarās of the Jainas are as real and historical as the risis who composed the Vedās and the other great men of the Brāhmiṇa tradition. Actually the description of the Jaina myths of the period are comparatively more rational, nearer to reality and more intelligible. The Śramaṇ culture too is purely mānava culture of ancient India which had probably come into existance and developed some time before the rise of the Vedic Dharma and Brāhmiṇa culture. After the rise of the Brāhmiṇa-vedic culture, it continued to develop and prosper, struggling, co-ordinating, exchanging and maintaining its independent existence.

With the end of the destructive war of *Mahābhārata*, the long period of the prehistoric era of the Indian history came to an end and regular history started.

1.2 The origin of the Jaina religion

1.2.1 The basis of change

There have been living beings and human beings since the earth came into existence and since the combination of soul and matter. Only a cycle of changes goes on. The Jaina Ācaryās have divided these changes into different sections on different grounds. One of the bases of the changes was geographical change. Regional changes are constantly taking place on the earth. Another basis is the cycle of time. Changes take place in the earth on which we are living, with the cycle of time. This cycle goes on and with it changes take place. The cycle of time has been divided into twelve parts. Six of these parts are the ones progressing from sorrow to pleasure and remaining six parts are the ones proceeding from pleasure to sorrow. A time comes when all the things undergo deterioration. This time is called 'avasarpini'. Similarly the time when things develop and prosper is called 'utsarpini'. The time or period in which we are living is 'avasarpini'.

According to the theory of the cycle of time, during the third period when only a small fraction of time of the third part was left, the orGanization and the order of the world in the history of mankind took a new turn. The world was influenced by the *Kulkars*. Earlier, it was the period of the twins. In the last phase of the third period, ambitions began to grow. The period of the twins was on the verge of coming to an end. Some people began to elect their leaders. Families came into existence, and some people became the heads of the families. This is the starting point of the institution of families. The heads took charge of the families and in this way the institution of leadership came into existence.

In the period of the twins everything was self-controlled. There was no ruling by any other person. When the institution of families came into existence, one ruler, one order and one leadership also came into existence. Nābhi is said to be the seventh *Kulkara*. According to the 'Jambudwīpa Pragyapti', Nābhi was the fourteenth and R ṣabha was the fifteenth *Kulkar*. R ṣabha also came to be regarded as a *Kulkar*.

According to the Jaina philosophy, no one is born as god. No one is an incarnation. Every body is born with some limitation, imperfection. Even Rṣabha was not perfect, he had some limitations. But he was endowed with enlistment. He was born with Avadhi Jñāna, Atindriya jñāna (intuitional, transcendental knowledge). His intelligence had been awakened since birth.

1.2.2 Lord Rşabha The Śramaņa traditon

Pāršvanātha and Mahāvīra are confirmed historical figures. The historicity of the early twenty-two *tīrtharikarās* has not been scientifically established. However we have plenty of legends and *purāṇas* giving

their biographical details. Now the main question is—when did Jainism begin and who started it? Is it R ṣabha Dev or Neminātha or Mahāvīra? Is tīrthankara, Ford Maker or Maker of a River Crossing, a follower of someone? A tīrthankara is not the follower of anybody. In a way no tīrthankara is the follower of any other tīrthankara. Mahāvīra is not the follower of Pārṣvanātha; Similarly, Pārṣvanātha is not the follower of R ṣabha. All of them are the pro-pounders of the path. The question arisesoff every tīrthankarās is the initiator of the path how come that there is a series of twenty-four tīrthankarās? Why were such things accepted? All these things are to be contemplated.

All are free, all are independent and propounders of the path. Considered from this point of view, Mahāvīra is also a propounder, but when we try to find out who was the earliest to initiate the Jaina Dharma, we come to the age in which the span of the period of the twins came to an end and the period of society begins. In that early era of the society, Lord R sabha first of all propounded the Jaina Dharma. He initiated not only the Jaina Dharma, but the whole of the Śramaṇa Dharma. The tradition that was established by Lord R sabha is known by the name of the Śramaṇa tradition. In that tradition many sects such as the Śankhya, the Bodha and the Ajīvika were formed. Their number reached up to forty and it may be even more. All the non-Vedic sects belonged to the Śramaṇa tradition. The tradition of all those sects were propounded by Lord R sabha. He gave a great extension to matter during his reign and realized that where there was matter there would be difference and contrast.

1.2.3 The decision of Lord Rsabha

Lord R sabha decided to start a new path. He determined to propound a path in which there should be no difference, no contrast. An idea came into his mind that he had to propound the doctrine of renunciation. It was in the garden that he decided to put his idea into practice and to give it a concrete shape. Having come to this decision, he came to his palace. He expressed his desire of renouncing the kingdom and all the worldly pleasures to Bharat. No one-neither Bharat nor the public nor a single citizen of Vintā Nagari wanted to be deprived of his noble and pleasant protection. Bharat and the public requested him not to relinguish the kingdom and go away, leaving them helpless. But R ṣabha did not yield to their request. His determination was firm. And a day came when R ṣabha handed over his kingdom to Bharat and Bāhubali and his attention. Leaving the kingdom he made his way to the forest and reached a garden outside the city. A large number of people followed him. It seemed that all the people of the city had come after him. Four thousand persons set out to live with him. They were asking where he was going and why he was leaving. They did not know what a monk was. They had never seen nor heard of a monk. They knew nothing but they were determined to accompany R ṣabha under the leadership of Katha and Mahakatca.

Bharat said, 'O Katca! O Mahakatca! where are you going?'

They said, 'We are going with Lord R sabha.'

Bharat said, 'What will you do there? Please do not go.'

They said, 'We shall all go with Lord R sabha, come what may.'

A crowd of four thousand persons followed R sabha. There was not a person who did not witness this extra-ordinary scene. It was something new to them.

Reabha went and stood in the garden of *Vincetā Nagari*. A crowd of four thousand persons was with him. They had made up their minds to live where Reabha lived. Consequently they became monks along with Reabha. The religion of equanimity had been propounded. This means the establishment of a new religious path. The main percept of *Śramaṇa* tradition is equanimity. It is the dividing line between the *Vedic* and the *Śramaṇa* tradition. Three types of practices have been described in the *Sthānāṅg Sūtra*. One of them is the practice of *sāmāyik*. It is related to the *Śramaṇa* tradition. It is said that the meaning of the word 'samatā' is

equality. But this is not the real and the original meaning. The word 'samatā' means 'the soul' and the meaning of the word 'soul' is samatā. What is soul is sāmāyik and what is sāmāyik is soul. Equanimity cannot be established without acknowledging the soul. This is the only point on which samatā can be discussed. The person who does not recognize soul is not fit and has no right to talk of equanimity.

It was R sabha, who first of all opened the subject of soul. He said that where there is soul, equanimity will automatically take place. Without accepting this fact, to talk of soul is not possible. The human society got enlightened by this proclamation of R sabha.

Lord R sabha presented the principle of antithesis before the principle of thesis. If there is society, there must be the absence of society. Where there is carnal pleasure, there is renunciation. Where there is substance, there must be absence of substance. This propagation was known as Dharma*tirtha. When there is propagation of Dharma*tirtha, a community of monks and nuns, Śrāvakās and Śrāvikās was formed. But that is secondary, and not the primary meaning of Dharma*tirtha. The real meaning is discourse, sermon. Lord R sabha showed a new path called the tirth. Even the monks and nuns, male laities and female laities are also formally called 'tirth'. Many people were benefitted and enlightened, many became monks and nuns, Śrāvakās and Śrāvikās by his sermons. These are the four ingredients, parts of Teerth. By the propagation of the tirth, the society came to have a new ideal, a new path.

Lord R sabha meditated in the regions of the Himalayas. The Himalayas have been a place of worship and meditation of Lord R sabha. Recently new researches are taking place. People have come to believe that R sabha and Šīva are not two separate entities. The two streams, emerged from one and the same person. One of the streams is called Šiva and the other R sabha. Basically both are one and the same. An the idol of R sabha is there in *Dhārwār* and that of Šiva is there in the zoo at Indore. It is said about R sabha, 'R sabha uprooted his hair at the time of initiation.' After the four handfuls of hair was phicked, *Indra* told him, 'O Lord, this style of the hair is looking very beautiful. Will you uproot it also? Please let it remain so!' R sabha granted his request. He did not uproot the remaining handful of the hair. The hair went on growing and it grew so long that it reached down his shoulders.

1.2.3 Rşabha and Śīva

Whether we look at the idol of Reabha or that of Siva, both look alike. There is no difference between the two. There are many other facts on the basis of which we may conclude that R sabha and Siva are the two forms of one and the same person. Śliva is non-Vedic and so is R sabha. The religion of equanimity started by Resabha proved to be highly beneficial to the public. Lord Mahāvīra also propogeted the same religion. It is strange to note that twenty two *itraharkarās* are on the one side and twoóR sabha and Mahāvīra-on the other. The one is the starting point and the other is the last point. Both appear to be on the same level. The twitha they propounded is there before us even today. The Jaina religion originated from Lord R sabha. This is a fact not based on traditions but proved historically. It is probable that the term 'Jain' is not very old. The Sramana religion and the Arhat religion are the ancient names of the Jaina religion. In the time of Lord Mahāvīra it became famous by the name of 'Nirgranth religion'. In all probability it came to be known as 'Jaina religion' after Lord Mahāvīra. But it does not mean that Jaina religion originated long after. It has been made clear at various places in the Jaina scriptures that the religion which was propounded by Mahāvīra the basic elements, the philosophy and the code of conduct-was presented in the same way by the tirthankaras prior to him. All the trithankaras, starting from Reabha to Mahavira, presented "Truth" and showed the path of salvation 'mokṣa' in the same way. '(This is the truth of the Jaina religion which was propounded by all the *tīrthankarās* i -from R sabha to Mahāvīra. We pay our respects to all the twenty-four tīrthankarās.) To conclude, it may be said that from the point of view of tradition, Jaina religion is an ancient religion and its beginnings are in the remote past. But from historical point of view, it was founded by Lord R sabha, therefore it belongs to the prehistoric period.

OUESTION TO BE ANSWERED

1. Essay-type question

1. Prove on the basis of solid evidences the origin and the effect of the Śramaṇs, describing the cultural diversities that were there in the pre-historic period.

2. Short-answer-type question

- 1. Explain the Śraman culture and environment on the basis of the Vedic literature.
- 2. 'The Jaina religion originated from Lord R sabha' Elucidate this fact.

3. Objective-type questions

- (A) Answer the following questions in one sentence:
- 1. To whom is the third of the three ancient human communities of India, related?
- 2. What are the evidences found in the relics of *Mohen-Jo-Daro*, on the basis of which Sir John Marshall draws the conclusion that the Indus-Valley civilization is non-Vedik?
- 3. Which is the beginning period of the Vedic era, according to the majority of the people?
- 4. Who are the two great men who may be regarded as the symbol of the original cultural unity of India?

(B) Fill in the blanks:

- 1. In the or Gan ization, all the people were self-governed.
- 2. The main precept of the Śraman culture was
- 3. The place where Lord R sabha performed penance is
- 4. R sabha and are the two streams of one and the same person.
- 5. From the point of view of Jaina religion has no beginning.

Acknowledge:

- 1. Basham-By A.L. Ājivakās, London, 1951.
- 2. Bhārtīya Itihās : Ek Drsti-By Dr. Jyoti Prasad Jain, Bhārtīya Gyān Peeth, Delhi.
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Compiled By:

Muni Mahendra Kumār., Dr. Anand Prakash Tripathi.

LESSON-1 (B)

JAIN RELIGION IN THE PRE-HISTORIC PERIOD

In the A-part of this lesson, we had discussed at length about the Śramana culture, the Vedic culture and the origin of Jaina religion. In this B-part, we shall study the biography of R sabha in detail. You have already known that R sabha was the first *Tirthankara* among the series of the 24 Jaina *Tirthankarās*. Let us examine how the Jaina tradition narrates the life of the first Tirtharikara tradition narrates the life of the first Tirtharikara adnu in the light of historical facts and figures.

1.0 R\$ABHA (The First Jaina *Tīrthaṅkara*)

1.1 traditional & Historical Background

For comprehending and studying the life of Risabha, the first Jaina Tirthankara, we shall have to go back to the pre-historical age, on which the Jaina tradition throws light in its own way. Let us critically analyze the life-events of Lord Risabha in the context of the Jaina traditional concepts. We have already discussed some aspects in the previous lesson. We shall discuss the rest in this lesson.

1.1.1 The Time-Cycle

'Change' is the inevitable process of nature. Hence, changes go on taking place with the passage of time. There is creation, and also destruction. But no creation is absolutely new, no destruction is absolutely total. There is always partial creation and partial destruction. The basic and fundamental elements of creation are vouchsafed in the process of destanction, and hence the process of creation continues forever.

The cycle of time is beginningless and endless. Jainism, as we have already seen in the previous part of this lesson, has described the time-cycle with reference to 'deterioration' and 'development' in nature's phenomena. The two main divisionsóavasarpini and utsarpinióare further divided into six time stages called six spokes each. The six spokes of the present half cycle of time (avasarpint) are classified as:

- Extreme Plentitude or extremely happy (susama-susamā).
- (ii) Plentitude, happy (susanā).
- (iii) Plentitude-cum-penury, more happy than unhappy (susama-dusamā).
- (iv) Penury-cum-plentiude, extremely unhappy (dusama-susamā).
- (v) Penury unhappy (dusamā).
- (vi) Extreme Penury extremely unhappy (dusama-dusamā).

The gradual development during the six spokes of the next half time-cycle will be exactly reverse to this and will start from 'extreme penury' extremely unhappy and end in 'extreme plentitude' extremely happy.

The whole time-cycle consisting of the 12 spokes is called 'kalpa'. The natural phenomena such as lifespan, health, beauty, size of the body etc. go on deteriorating in the first six spokes (i.e. avasarpini) and go on developing in the latter six spokes (i.e., utsarpini).

The description given in Jaina mythological works starts with the story of extremely pleasant atmosphere, which, for the sake of convenience, we may consider as the 'beginning' of the world, and man in that age as 'the primitive' man (although actually the time-cycles have no beginning as much).

1.1.2 The Earliest Human Culture

In all the first three $\bar{a}r\bar{a}s$ (spokes of the time-wheel) viz., Extreme Plentitude, Plentitude and Plentitude-cum-penury, the homo sapiens, was still in undeveloped conditions from social point of view. Actually, it was the dawn of human civilization. Man, at that time, was not familiar with the different off-shoots of learning and science. The human beings had no social sense. It was a natural system that a pair of brother and sister was born as twin (yugala), which after maturation, would turn into a couple. This system was therefore termed as 'yaugalika' system. Their daily needs were fulfilled by the wish-fulfilling trees (kalpa-vṛkṣās). The basic ten varieties of needs were fulfilled by ten kinds of kalpa-vṛkṣās:

Rṣabha's life did not remain confined to spirituality only. He had inclination for wealth (artha) and worldly desires (kāma) as well as for righteousness (dharma) and emancipation (mokṣa). These four are considered to be the fundamental inclinations of worldly people. Like other people, Rṣabha had his personal life as well as social life. He cared for bothóhimself as well as human society.

Before the birth of R sabha, it was *yaugalika* era. There was nothing like marriage institution. The twin itself, after maturation, turned into couple. Both husband and wife lived together and also died together. These did not arise the question of becoming or widower. Also, there was no polygamy, no bigamy.

Now, in the time of R sabha, something altogether new started happening. Once it happened that out of a twin, the brother had premature death, the sister named SumArigalā, was left alone. The question aroseówho will be her husband now. R sabha and SuNarida were now matured. In order to solve the problem of SumArigalā, R sabha's marriage ceremony was arranged with both SuNarida and SumArigalā. The institutions of marriage and bigamy (or polygamy) got started.

In the A-part of this lesson, we had discussed *Śramana* culture, *Vedic* culture and the origin of Jaina religion etc. in the context of history. In this B-part, the biography of Lord Rṣabha the first *Tīrthankara* is being given in the context of the tradition of the twenty-four revered *Tīrthankarās* in the basis of the Jaina tradition and light is being thrown on his life in the context of history.

Rşabha

1.1 R şabha–The First *Tirthaûkara*–The traditional History

For comprehending and studying the life of Tīrthańkara Rṣabha, we will have to go back to the prehistorical period. We shall have to critically analyze the whole life of Lord Rṣabha in the context of the concepts of the Jaina tradition. We have already discussed some aspects in the previous lesson. We shall discuss the rest in this lesson.

New changes go on taking place in Nature. New creation goes on because of these changes. This creation is neither totally destroyed nor is it originated. It is always partially destroyed and partially originated. The basic and the fundamental elements of this creation are vouchsafed in the process of destruction and origination and this process constantly goes on.

For our convenience and practical utility, we call the initial period of the 'Kalpa as the 'beginning period' of the creation and the man of that period as the primitive man. Actually speaking there are no such things as the 'beginning period' or 'the primitive man'.

1.1.1 The Early Culture

In the beginning, man was undeveloped. He was not familiar with the different offshoots of knowledge and science. At that time he did not have even the social sense. Therefore, the brother and the sister who were born as twins, began to live as husband and wife. This period was knows as the 'Period of the twins'. The

people at that time depended on desire-fulfilling trees (kalpa-vṛkṣāsa) for their living. Their material desires were of ten kinds. So the desire-fulfilling trees were also of ten kinds. Their names are as given below

- 1. Mridantak, 2. Bhringa, 3. Trutitānga, 4. Deepānga, 5. Jyotirānga,
- 6. Citrāng, 7. Citrārasa, 8. ManiAnga, 9. Gehakar, 10. AnAnga.

All of them functioned in accordance with their names.

In the modern terminology we may call that age as Stone-age. At that time there was no or Ganīzation of village, town, house, society and state etc. The people had no problem. So there were no wars. This was the infancy of the mental development of man. So he had neither the lust of sin nor the real knowledge of religion. Yet he was free from vices. He was indifferent to both sin and religion. His was the life of contentment, peace and freedom from sexual passions. His wants were limited and the means to satisfy them were many and unlimited.

1.1.2 The Order of Development of the Human Civilization

At the end of the third ara of time-cycle, changes in Nature started to take place rapidly. The yugalas who lived different others were now forced to live in tribes. Sometimes there were fights and struggles for the desire-fulfilling trees. At that time the signs of mental development too began to appear. The problem of self-defence also arose before them.

1.1.3 The Fourteen Kulkars

Necessity is the mother of invention. The social scientists who carried out inventions were called 'Manu' or 'Kulkar'. Of all the Kulkars, fourteen have become most famous. They taught the people to make sticks from trees and bamboos, to sharpen stones or to make weapons from the sharpened stones and to weild them, for self-defence.

Now the number of the mutual struggles increased. When the number of the desire-fulfilling trees began to fade away, the feeling of possession (ownership) of them grew in man. Then the chief Kulkar of the society prescribed a limit for all of them viz. the desire-fulfilling trees of a certain area would be in the possession of a certain tribe. Punishment for the violation of this rule was also determined, though its form was very simple. On violating the rule for the first time, the suilty person was reprimanded with the word $'H\bar{a}''$ On the repetition of the guilt for the second time, he was rebuked with the word, $'M\bar{a}'$ On violating the rule for the third time, he was put to shame by even stronger term of rebuke—'Dhick! This was considered to be the severest punishment of that time.

But when the disputes did not come to an end even then, the marks of identification were made on the trees for each and every person. The *Kulkars* taught the people to capture animals like the horse and the elephant, and use them for riding etc. They invented boats for crossing the rivers in the rainy season. They also asked them to name their children and told them about the means of entertainment and recreation. In this way, the *Kulkars* of that time solved the problems and satisfied the curiosities of the people. They taught them who were divided into tribes to live in groups at one place. 'The human-society' came into existence. The names of these *Kulkars* in chronological order are as follows: 1. Smrti, 2. Pratiśruti, 3. Seemānk, 4. Seemandhar, 5. Khemankar, 6. Khemandhar, 7. Vimalvāhan, 8. Cakṣumān, 9. Yaśaswān, 10. Abhicandra, 11. Candrabhān, 12. Prasenjit, 13. Marudevā and 14. Nābhi.

In the period of Nābhi, the last *Kulkar*, strange changes began to take place in Nature. The desire-fulfilling trees were at the verge of coming to an end. It began to rain, which was very pleasing, and different types of vegetation, fruit-bearing trees, food-grains and sugar-cane began to grow. After a very short time, fruit-bearing trees were to be seen on all the sides. There was, before the public, the problem of satisfying

hunger. Crops were there, but the public did not know how to use them. Many people went to Nābhi and asked him to suggest some way so that they might live. Nābhi comforted them and asked them not to get scared. He told them that the fruit-bearing trees and the crops would serve the same purpose of the desire-fulfilling trees. He taught them proper method of $\operatorname{culti} V\bar{a}t$ ion.

1.2.1 The Birth of R sabha

Lord R sabha was born at the end of the system of the twins. There was no one to give proper guidance and to put things in order under the changed circumstances. The order that the *Kulkar*s had set up, had become ineffective. New complications were arising day by day. Even Nābhi, the *Kulkar* wanted to get rid of this post of great responsibility. There seemed to be no solution. At such a critical time Lord R sabha was born. The soul of R sabha came down from the abode of the gods called 'Sarvārth Siddhi' and entered the womb of Marudevā, the wife of the Kulkar Nābhi. That night, mother Marudevā had fourteen auspicious dreams. She saw in the dreamsof. The bull, 2. The elephant, 3. The lion, 4. Goddess Laxmi, 5. A garland of flowers, 6. The moon, 7. The sun, 8. The flag of *Mahendra*, 9. A pitcher, 10. A pond of lotus flowers, 11. The sea of milk, 12. A celestial plane moving through the sky, 13. A heap of jewels and 14. A fire without smoke.

Mother MaruDeva's joy knew to bounds to see these 14 dreams. She told her husband about her dreams. She described to him all of them one by one.

Hearing the account of the dreams, Nābhi was astonished. He was not an interpreter of dreams, but on the spur of his intution, he said, 'What do these dreams indicate? They are the intimation of the bright future of all the living beings. It seems that very soon our worries are going to be over. The extraordinary soul that has entered your womb will become the hight of the world. It was the auspicious fourth day of the dark fortnight in the month of June (lunar month of āṣāḍha in Indian calander), when the soul of the first Tīrtharkara entered the womb of his mother.

On the completion of the pregnancy period, mother Marudevā gave birth to twinsóa son and a daughter in the midnight of the eighth day of the dark fortnight in the month of March (caitra). The whole world was delighted at the birth of the Lord. Peace prevailed everywhere. Even the creatures dwelling in the hell felt peace for a moment. The sixty-four *Indras* and hundreds of gods, assembled on the earth, and celebrated the birth of the Lord. Seeing the gods in such a large number, all the twins in the vicinity gathered there. In spite of being unfamiliar with the procedure of celebrating a function, all of them celebrated the birth, imitating one another. That period of deterioration was the in age, profound studies and intellect. The birth of Lord R sabha was celebrated and that was the beginning of a tradition. From then on the tradition of celebrating a birth started.

1.2.2 The Naming Ceremony

Deliberating over the naming of the child, Kulkar Nābhi said, 'When this child was conceived, his mother had fourteen dreams. The first of the dreams was that of a bull. There is a mark of a bull on the thigh of the child. So, in my opinion, the child should be named R sabha Kumār.' All the twins present felt the name very appropriate, all of them called the baby by this very name. The daughter was given the name SuNarida.

The Jaina philosophy does not believe in incarnation of God. All mundane beings are born with some imperfectness. Though R sabha was also one of such being he was born with some extra-ordinary speciality. He was born with clairvoyance (avadhiprāṇa). His intention or insight (praynae) had been awakened since birth. The life-style of such a person is of different type. That is the reason the way of living and talking of R sabha and also his actions were not like those of the twins of that time. There was something unique, something extra-ordinary about him.

1.2.3 Marriage of Rşabha

R sabha's was a wholesome life. He practiced all the four types of efforts-the worldly desires, wealth, religion and emancipation. He did a lot for his personal life, he did a lot for the society also. He was passing through the period of bachelorhood. A new turn came in his marriage too. In the period of the twins the practice of bigamy was not prevalent. Twins were born and in due course of time they began to live as husband and wife. None of the twins died in between. The twins lived together upto the end of their lives, no one met an untimely death. But then an accident occurred. There was a pair of twins. It so happened that the husband died, the wife was saved. That lone woman was paired with R sabha. Both SuNarida and Sumanglā were married to R sabha. Thus the practice of bigamy begins with R sabha. It seems R sabha had got the habit of doing something new since his childhood. He broke many tradition. In the period of the twins, one pair of twins gave birth to only one pair of twins. R sabha broke this tradition. One hundred sons and two daughters were born to him. Sumanglā gave birth to rinety-nine sons, Bharat etc. SuNarida gave birth to Fahubalī. The names of the daughters were Brāhmī and Sundarī. R sabha had a complete family. His son Bharat become a sovereign.

1.2.4 The coronation

One day some twins were talking to Rṣabha. There was a discussion on the shortage of things at that time. All were unhappy and terrified. They asked Rṣabha, 'Will there be any solution to the problem of scarcity and shortage of the things or will all the people have to die quarrelling and fighting with one another? It is getting more and more difficult to live.'

R sabha thought that there should be a permanent solution to the problem. Many solution were thought of with appropriate changes from time to time, the policies of 'hakār' to 'makār' and from 'makār' to 'dhikkār' were adopted but no solution could be found. Now the Kulkar system had become absolute. Now there should be a king in due form. From his control and discipline only the problem could be solved.

The twins gathered together and came to the Kulkar Nābhi. They requested him to be the king. Nābhi said, 'You should go to Rṣabha. He will be the king and solve the problems.'

Now the twins began to make preparations for the coronation of R sabha, using all the faculty of their imagination and ideas. They decorated the body of R sabha with many kinds of flowers. R sabha was seated on a lofty throne and consecrated his feet with water. When *Indra* saw this scene (from his intuition), he was overwhelmed. He swifty came down to the mortal world. Admiring the humility of the people of that place, he gave it the name 'Vineetā'. In due course of time that place developed into a city named 'Vineetā'. The day on which declaration of R sabha becoming the king was made, was the first instant in the history of monarchy. Monarchy was declared on the very day and the running of the orGaṇīzation of the society in confirmity to prescribed rules and regulations was introduced.

Only to have control over crimes by using the force of punishment is not the aim of monarchy. Its aim is to develop human values. That monarchy is said to be good in which there is neither the shortage of money and matter nor is there their influence. R sabha managed the monarchy on the basis of these two controls. He grasped the problems very minutely and thought of their solutions with a calm and cool heart.

1.2.5 Rsabha and the craft:

Rṣabha said, 'You cannot live only by depending on the trees. You will have to work. The period of leisurely enjoyment is over now. This is a period of *Karma* (action, work) and this is a field of action. Do work and enjoy the fruits of your labour'. He taught farming to the people. The people started farming and corn began to grow. The problem of food was getting solved. Along with farming, Rṣabha taught the people many other things to satisfy all the other wants. He himself had to teach them the way of doing each and every thing.

Rṣabha taught his elder son Bharat seventy-two arts. To his younger son Bāhubalī he taught the 'Lakṣan Vidyā'. The taught eighteen scripts to his elder daughter Brāhmī and Mathematics to Sundarī. By introducing and teaching archery, economics, medical science and games and sports, he made the people well-orGaṇīzed and cultured.

The discovery of fire opened the door for unprecendented development. The crafts of making pots and pans, instruments, tools, clothes and pictures developed. Making pots and pans became necessary for cooking food. Instruments and tools were required for farming and for building houses. So the craft of iron came into existence. The social life gave birth to the craft of making clothes and to architecture. The craft of the barbers was introduced to cut hair and nails. All theses five crafts came into existence after the discovery of fire.

With the development of so many matters and materials the necessity of their exchange was felt. At that time R sabha imparted training in business.

The farmers, the merchants and the defense forces too came into existence after the discovery of fire. Thus it may be said that fire changed the fate of man by providing instruments for farming, means for export and important also arms and weapons. When the number of articles and objects increased, the people developed a longing for their possession. They began to possess and to collect things. Attachment for family also increased. The feelings of having and collecting worldly objects rose and developed.

1.2.6 The sword (Arms and weapons)

Results and the class of people for the defense of the public and taught that class how to weild swords, spears and the other weapons. He also gave instructions regarding when and against whom the weapons should be used. This class was called as "The *Kṣatriyas*" by the people.

Thinking over the problem of making the things produced and manufacture available from one person to another, he invented the art of writing which means exchange of goods by means of writing and keeping accounts.

1.2.7 Service and the caste system

The people who were not adopt at famining and such other jobs took up the jobs of serving others and cleaning. They did not have to use much brains in doing such jobs. They simply did the task assigned to them and got payment. But in society, all were equal. There was no discrimination. All of them had an opportunity to choose the job of their liking and according to their abilities.

Separate castes had come into existence in accordance with the work done. The four castes mentioned in the Indian scriptures had come into being in the time of Lord R sabha. The class that was in charge of defense, was called 'Kṣatriya'. The people who performed the task of farming and keeping accounts, were called 'Vaiśyās'. Besides these two classes, the people doing the other jobs like serving and cleaning, were called 'Śudrās'. The class of the Brāhmiṇās came into existence during the reign of emperor Bharat.

1.2.8 The institution of marriage

Respiral introduced the institution of marriage with a view to having control over the instinct of sex. To keep the period before marriage totally dispassionate was declared compulsory. The people got used to having dispassionate relations with other women except their wives. Besides, marriage to one's sister was also prohibited. The sacred relationship, free from sensual properties between brother and sister, that we have today, is the contribution of Lord Reabha.

1.2.9 From the forest culture to the rural culture

Introducing living collectively, R sabha, first of all, explained to the people the outline of the system of

the village. He said, 'Times have changed now. You will have to make changes in your life-style. Physical endurance, in the coming times, will decrease gradually. Therefore, making houses and living in them will be better and safer. People, living in a group, can help one another. Unitedly, every calamity can be faced easily.' The people realized his message. The twins, in large numbers, settled in the villages, leaving the jungles. The first locality, thus established, was called 'Vineetā'. Rṣabha made his residence in that locality. It got the distinction of being the first capital of India. Later on, it was called by the name of 'Ayodhyā'.

1.2.10 Penal Code

With the development of society, crimes also began to grow. For the prevention of crimes a new dimension was given to the penal code. R sabha put forth four types of punishment—

- 1. Detention for a short period—To keep the guilty person under detention for some timeóte order the culprit in an angry tone, 'Sit down'.
 - 2. Detention-Under this punishment, the culprit was asked not to go out of the prescribed boundary.
- **3. Detenu**—The use of some restriction—The person receiving this punishment could not go out of his house or from some certain place.
- **4. Giving blows**—The use of blows and strokes. To beat the culprit who had committed a crime of some grave nature with glows. This was the severest punishment.

1.2.11 The history of the flowers

The garden of R sabha was very beautiful. It was spring time. The trees were laden with fruits. Beautiful flowers were blooming on the vines. Many kinds of amusements and sports were going on. These wonderful sports seemed to be familiar to R sabha. Pondering over them R sabha went into the far past. He found that he had seen that scene at a certain place in heaven. R sabha got absorbed in introspection. All the conditions of matter got cleared to him. What is matter? What is the condition of matter? What is this world? Of what is it composed? How is it created? How does a flower bloom and fade away? He made a resolution—he had to propogate renunciation. Determining in the garden to put his resolution into action, R sabha came to the palace.

1.3.1 The Great Renunciation

Reading them helpless. But Readha's mind had been made up. He did not accept their request. He divided his land the whole of the terrestrial globe into one hundred parts and handed over the responsibility of managing Vincetā to Bharat and of the other minety-nine parts to the rest of the ninety-nine sons. Renouncing all the worldly acts, he began to give away the annual charity. From this all the people came to know that he was going away, renouncing the house. Four thousand people decided to go with him and to live wherever he lived. On the eighth day of the month of March (it was the dark fortnight), all the four thousand people gathered near Readha. At the fixed hour Readha made the renunciation. A big crowd of people from far-off places rushed there to see the great renunciation. All the people were filled with a strange sort of wonder at this devotion. Thousands of gods, along with sixty-four Iridras, also attended the function. Reaching a garden outside Vincetā, Reaching a garden outside Vincetā, Reaching a line of the removed all his clothes and ornaments and handed them over to Iridra.

At the time of initiation, R sabha uprooted his hair. When four fist-full of hair was pulled out by his hand from his head. *Indra* prayed, 'O Lord! How beautiful this hair-style is looking! Kindly let it remain like this.' R sabha accepted his request. He did not uproot the remaining hair. Following R sabha, the other people also started doing so. Probably the tradition of the braided hair started from here.

With the initiation of R sabha, four thousand persons were also got initiated into monkhood. But they

were disappointed at his silence of his being devoid of omniscience. They waited for alongtime that he would say something, but R sabha was silent. They thought that they would have to be like that—without food and without speaking for the whole life—they got nervous and disheartened, and giving up monkhood, they made for the jungle. They started living there. Some of them became fruit-eaters, some became root-eaters and the others became esculent tuber root-eaters.

With the initiation, the destructive *karmās*, that had been earned previously, were totally destroyed. The people were not familiar with the system of begging food. In spite of having great respect for R sabha, no one asked him to have food or water. All of them insisted on giving valuable ornaments, elephants and horses etc. In the want of pure food, twelve months passed without R sabha having food or water.

Śreyāńsa Kumār, the great grandson of R ṣabha had a dream one night. He dreamt that Mount Meru, that had got darkened, became lustrous again when he gave milk to it. The next morning, Śreyāńsa Kumār, sitting at a window of his palace, was thinking over the dream. All of sudden he caught sight of his great grand father R ṣabha. From his rank determining knowledge, he came to know that R ṣabha wanted pure food and that the people did not know his method of begging food.

Śreyāńsa Kumār came downimmediately. He paid due respect to R sabha, lying at his feet and requested him to have food. He said, 'O Lord! 108 pitchers full of the juice of sugarcane are pure. Kindly have them.' Getting stationary, R sabha put both of his palms close to his mouth. Feeling great pleasure, Śreyāńsa Kumār offered him the sugar-cane juice. In this way the fast of the Lord wat complete and broken with the sugarcane juice. The gods offered five substances. The sky resounded with the sound of, 'Oh, what a charity!'. The people came to know the importance and also the method of charity, it was the third day of the bright fortnight in the month of April. This day, thereafter, came to be known as the festival, 'Akṣaya Trītiyā'.

1.3.2 The attainment of omniscience

For one thousand years, Rṣabha, the sage, performed penance in the stage of being devoid of omniscience. Wandering here and there, he came to *Purimatālpura*. It was at this place that sitting under a banyan tree in a garden, he attained omniscience in the morning of the eleventh day of the dark fortnight in the month of February, when he was performing the penance of the fast of three days duration.

On the great occasion of his attainment of omniscience, the sixty-four *Iridra*s gathered there. The gods blew the divine trumpets. The people realized that henceforth the Lord would provide solutions to the inner problems.

1.3.3 The propagation of the food of religion

The gods held a pious meeting of the monks and of the male and female laities. The people heard for the first time about spiritualism from the Lord. Just after the first sermon, many men and women became monks and nuns and laities. After the establishment of the four-fold ford religion (Comprising male and female laities, monks and nuns) the Lord came to be known as *Tirtharikara*. The strength of eighty-four thousand laities in his ford was the result of the wonderful revolution that he brought about in the field of religion.

2.0 The death of the Lord

Realizing that the end of his life was near at hand, Lord Rṣabha climbed mount Aṣṭāpada (Mount Kailāś) along with ten thousand monks. There fasted for six days and destroyed the remaining non-destructing karmās and met his end in the 'Paryaṅka Āsana' (Sitting posture). It was the thirteenth day of the dark fortnight in the month of January. He achieved the ultimate goal of life, attained enlightenment and became the supreme being. Mount Kailāś, being the place of his death, became a Tīrtha and place where the ultimate goal of life could be achieved.

2.1 Lord Rsabha on the test of the historical evidences in the Vedic Literature

Information about the life of R sabha is available not only in the Jaina literature and tradition but in the *Vedic* literature also. He had got a wide recognition as R sabha, the first *Tīrthankara* and the founder of the *Śramaṇa* culture. The evidences found in the *Vedic* literature such as the *Vedās*, the *Purāṇas* and the *Mahābhārat* are clear accounts easily connected with R sabha.

2.1.1 Monks or Ascetics Who Consume Only Air (Vaatarāśan Muni/ Vaatarāśana Śramaņa)

In the *Vedic* literature, the word '*Vāṭraśan*' occurs at many places. Its meaning is the monk who consumes only air or one who performs penance. The word *Vāṭrāśan* is used as an adjective for the *Śraman as* ascetics, indicates the disciples of Lord R ṣabha. For example, the term '*Vāṭrāśan*' is found in the *Rgveda*—

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'munayo vaatarāśanāh piśangā vasate malā
vātsyānu prāņa yanti yaddevāso avikṣataḥ' (Ŗgveda 10/11/136/2).
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(These monks who are *Vātrāśan* (i.e. who consume only air) put on garments made of the yellow skin of trees and attaining divine power, have been able to move as fast as wind.)

In the same chapter, the word mauney (monkhood) is also used. A *Vātrāśan* monk, expressing his feeling of monkhood, says—

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'unmaditā mauneyena vātā ā tasthimā vayam.
śarīredasmākam yūyam ma rtā so abhi paśyatha.' (Ŗgveda, 10/11/136/3)
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(Being overwhelmed by the eastasy of monkhood, we have become steady in the air. O mortals, what you see are merely our physical bodies.)

In the scripture 'Taitireeyāraṇyaka' the Śramaṇās are referred as the Vātrāśan seers (rishis) and 'urdhwāmarithi (perfection control over sexual desires)

'Vātarāšanā ha vā risayah Śramana ūrdhva nanthino babhūvuh.'

These *Vātrāšan Śramaṇas* are just the disciples of Lord Rṣabha. In the scripture Śri*mad Bhāgawat*, Rṣabha has been accounted as Jina the propagator of the *Śramaṇa* religion. These very adjectives have been used for him—

'Dharmān darśayitukāmo vātraśanānām śramaṇānāmṛṣīnāmūr-dhvamanthinām śuklayā tanunāVātatāra.'

(For revealing the religion of the *Vātrāśan Śramaṇas*, the seers (*riṣis*) and the celebrates Lord R sabha appeared in spotless white and in pure form of body.)

In the *Vedic* therature, the account of the muni or ascetic is scarce. The reason is not that there was absolute absence of the sin but they were far from the material world of the priests, they were completely absorbed in their spiritual contemplation and abstained themselves from this account of the ascetics, it is clear that they belonged to a tradition different from the *Vedic* one. In the *Vedic* preaching, the religious ceremonies in which pajnās (sacrifices) were performed, were of the greatest importance. Renunciation or asceticism had little value there.

The term 'Vātrāśan' stands for 'Śramaṇa'. This fact has been confirmed from the scriptures Taitiriyaraṇkya and Śrimad Bhāgawat. There it has been mentioned that VāsuDeva had his eighth incarnation as the son of Nābhi and Marudevī. He was born as Rṣabha and he showed the way revered by people of all āśrama (i.e., the four categories). That is the reason why Rṣabha has been reference to as 'Vāsudevānś' of VāsuDeva, in the context of the founder of mokṣa-dharma.

Religion of exposition of salvation

R sabha had one hundred sons. They were well-versed in transcendental sciences. Nine of his sons are referred to as well-versed in the science of self. His eldest son Bharat was a great yogi.

In the context of the Jaina canonical texts like Jambudweep Prajnapti and Kalpa Sūtra as well as Vedic text like Śrimad Bhāgawat, we find R ṣabha as the pioneer of the science of self. No wonder if the author of the Upniṣadās has reffered to R ṣabha himself as Brāhmā.

Another name of Brāhmā is Hiraṇygarbha. According to the epic *Mahābhārata*, Hiraṇyagarbha is no one else than the ancient scholar of Yoga. In Śri*mad Bhāgawat* Rṣabha has been mentioned as *Yogeśwara* (the master of Yoga). One who has practiced various techniques of yoga. In the book '*Haṭh Yoga' Pradīpīkā* Rṣabha is respected as the preceptor of the *Haṭh Yoga*. The Jaina ācāryās have also called him the 'propounder of the science of yoga'. Thus it becomes clear why Lord Rṣabha has been given the names 'Ādinātha', 'Hiraṇyagarbha' and 'Brāhmā'.

The Rgveda mentions that Hiranyagarbha was the only master and controller of the material world. But by this statement it is not clear whether he is a supreme being or a being having a body. Sankarācārya, in his commentary on 'Brihadāranyakopaniṣad' has indicated such a doubt. He says, "Some scholars are of the opinion that the supreme being is Hiranyagarbha and some say that he is a worldly being." This doubt arose because of the ignorance about the original form of Hiranyagarbha. According to Sāyaṇa, a commentator, Hiranyagarbha was a worldly being, have a body. Being the pioneer of the institution of asceticism (sanyāsa) and the science of the soul (ātma-vidyā), Hiranyagarbha is none other than Rṣabha. Hiranyagarbha was another name of Rṣabha. When Rṣabha was in the..., Kuber had caused a shower of hiranya (gold); that is why, he was called Hiranyagarbha.

In the Rgveda, in the chapter giving an account o the Vatrasan Muni, Kesī too has been eulogized.

'Keśyagnim Keśī viṣam Keśī bibharti rodasī Keśī viśvam svaddese keseedam jyotirucyate (Rgveda, 10/11/136/1)

(Keśī is the bearer of the fire, the sun and the earth. Keśī fills the world with his light. This light is described in the form of Keśī.)

The word 'Keśī' seems to symbolize Lord Rṣabha. Keśī literally means 'one having long hair'. In the context of the *Vātrāśan* ascetic, referring to Lord Rṣabha, one may think of Rṣabha. The tradition of describing Lord Rṣabha as Keśī is found in the Jaina literature. When Lord Rṣabha had renounced the world and had become a monk, he uprooted four out of the five fists of hair whereas traditionally all the five parts of hair are being uprooted. When he had uprooted four parts of hair, *Iridra* requested him to let the beautiful hair remain like that. Lord Rṣabha accepted his request and let his hair remain like that. That is the reason a braid of hair is seen going over the shoulder of the idols of Rṣabha. The matted hair falling upto the shoulder is the symbol of his idol.

The idols of R sabha have been identified as 'having hair on the top of his head. The fact that 'Keśī R sabha' belonged to the pre-historic period and the pioneer of the Śraman culture is clear from the eulogy of Keśī. In the Rgveda, the accounts of Keśī and R sabha are found together. There it is mentioned that when the cows (symbolizing the senses) of Mudgal, the ascetic, were being stolen, (i.e. when the senses were becoming attracted towards sensual pleasures), they were restored to the ascetic i.e. the senses came under the control of the ascetics, and got introverted by the sermons and preaching of R sabha.

3.1.2 Vrātya

The use of the term 'Vrātya' is found in the Vedās. The Vrātya chapter in the Atharvaveda is related to

some tradition other than the Brāhmīṇic one. Ācārya Sāyan has described a *Vrātya* as a great scholar, a righteous person, honoured in the whole world and a prominent Brāhmīn. In connection with the preface of the *Vrātya* chapter, he has written, '*Vrātya* has been eulogized in this chapter. A person devoid of the sacred thread is known as a *Vrātya*. Such a person is generally considered as a degraded person, not fit for performing the *Vedic* rituals. But if a *Vrātya* is an ascetic and a scholar, he will be worshipped by all, and he will be like Almighty God, even if the *Brāhmiṇas* envy him. *Vrātya* has inspired the *Prajāpati* during his travels to different places.' Dr. Sampūrnānand has given the meaning of the term '*Vrātya*' as a Supreme being. Śri Baldeo Upādhyāya is also of the same opinion, but going through the whole of the *Vrātya* chapter, this meaning does not seem to be appropriate.

3.1.3 Some precepts from the *Vrātya* Chapter

Vrātya remained standing for one year. The gods asked him, 'O *Vrātya*, why are you standing?' He marched towards the non-recurring direction. He, therefore, thought that he would not come back. The direction by going in which there is no coming back is known as the non-recurring direction. That is why he thought there would be no coming back for him. There is no coming back only for the person who is liberated.

So, the king, at whose residence such a scholarly *Vrātya* comes as a guest, should consider his arrival to be lucky for him. He does a crime to his kingdom and nation by doing so.

If such a scholarly *Vrātya* comes to the house of some one, the master of the house should go to him and treat him with great hospitality. He should say to him, 'O learned *Vrātya*, where do you reside?' He should offer him water to drink and tell him that the members of his family would entertain him with food and other things. They will do what he likes and he wishes and his desires are fulfilled.

In the precepts of the *Vrātya* chapter, it is said that the verson who entertains a *Vrātya*, will be highly benefited and that he will get the fruits of his hospitality.

Whatever meaning comes out of these precepts is not related to God, but to a living being, having a body. The subject expounded in the *Vrātya* chapter is compared to the life-history of Lord Rṣabha. In the Jaina scripture 'Mahāpurāṇa' it is said that after getting initiated, Rṣabha observed austerity for one year. His body was sound and shiring inspite of not having food for full one year.

Wherever the Lord, an ascetic, went, people come to him to offer their respects. Many of them said, 'O Lord, we wish happiness to you and pray, tell us what we can do for you.'

Many of the people said, "O Lord, shower happiness and blessings on us. Kindly oblige us."

Lord Reabha, in the end, went to the land from where there is no coming back. (He got emancipated).

It is very likely that the life-history of Lord R sabha has been presented as an allegory. Some *Vedic* people had great respect for him and recognized him as the Supreme God.

3.1.4 Arhan (Ford-Maker)

In the *Vedic* literature the term 'Arhan' very clearly denotes R sabha. There are many references of the Lord in *Rgveda*, but, if interpreted differently they get disputed. The term 'Arhan' is very dear to the *Śramaṇa* culture. The *Śramaṇas* call their *Tīrthaṅkarās* or the detached souls as 'Arhan'. This term has been used thousands of times in the Jaina and the Buddha literature. The Jainas have been known by the name 'Arhat' too. In *Rgveda*, the term 'Arhan' has been used for the *Śramaṇa* leader of the *Śramaṇa* culture.

(Rgveda, 2.4.33.10)

Quoting the words, Ācārya Vinobā Bhāve has written, 'O Arhan, you have mercy on this petty, worthless

world'. In this sentence, both the words 'Arhan' and 'Mercy' are the favourite words of the Jainas. Ācārya Bhāve is of the opinion that probably the Jaina religion is as old as the Hindu religion. The *Vedic* scholars, too, use for the *Śramaṇas* the term 'Arhan'. The term 'Arhan' being there in *the Rgveda*, it is proved that the *Śramaṇa* culture is older than that of the *Rgvedic* period.

Śri Jaicańd Vidhyalańkār considers the *Vrātyas* to be the followers of the Arhantasó Some ideologies other than the *Vedic* ideology had been there in India even before Buddha and Mahāvīra. The Arhatas and many monasteries too had been there before Buddha. The followers of the Arhatas and the monasteries were known as *Vrātyas*, the reference of whom in found in *Atharvaveda* also. On the basis of the evidences, Rṣabha, the first *Tīrtharkara*, is proved to be a historic person beyond doubt.

Questionnaire

1. Easy-type Question:

'The life of R sabha may be said to be a wholesome one.' Describe in detail whether this statement
is true or false.

2. Short-answer-type Questions:

- Testify the historicity of Rṣabha, throwing light in brief on the basis of any one of the matter available in Vedic literature.
- 2. Describe in brief life in the period of the twins.

3. Objective-type Questions:

- 1. What was the name of the girl who was born along with R sabha?
- What are the terms determining R sabha in the Vedic literature?
- 3. What is the name of the desire-fulfilling tree that fulfils the desire of music?
- 4. What is the name of the present period and which part of it is going on at present?
- To whom did R sabha impart the knowledge of 'Laksana Vidyā'
- 6. What term is used for the words 'detenu for a short period'?
- At what place did Śreyāńsa Kumār come to know that R sabha was in need of food?
- At which place did R sabha attain omniscience?
- How many mahāvratās were preached by Lord R şabha?
- 10. At which place did Lord R sabha attain emancipation?

Acknowledgement:

- 'Uttarādhyayan : Ek Sameekṣātmaka Adhyayan'-by Ācārya Śri Tulasī, edited by Muni Nathmal, Terapanthī Mahāsabhā, Calcutta.
- 'Jaina Dharma: Arhat aur Arhatāyen' by Yuvācārya Mahāpragya, J.V.B., Ladnun.
- 'Tīrthankara-Caritra'-by Muni Sumermal, J.V.B., Ladnun.
- 4. 'Choubees Tirthankarās'- by Dr. Gokulchand Jain, Parag Publication, Delhi.
- 5 *Choubees Tīrthankarās—Ek Paryavekshana'*—by Rajendra Muni, Taraka Guru Jaina Granthalaya, Udaipur.
- 6. 'Char Tīrthankara'-by Pt. Sukhlal Sanghvi.

Compiled by-

Dr. Samani Sthitpragya

Dr. Anand Prakash Tripathi

LESSON-1 (C)

JAIN RELIGION IN THE PRE-HISTORIC PERIOD

In the previous lesson we studied about the first Jaina *Tīrtharikara* under the tradition of the *Tīrtharikarās*, In this lesson we will try to know something about Lord Ariştanemi, the twenty-second *Tīrtharikara*. You must have realized that the period beginning from Lord R sabha to Lord Neminātha, the twenty-first *Tīrtharikara* is very significant as well as difficult from historical point of view. With Lord Ariştanemi, we enter the historical period of our country. From this point of view this lesson is very significant and important.

Ariştanemi

1.1.0 Aristanemi, the 22nd Türthankara: traditional History

Lord Ariştanemi was the contemporary of Lord Kṛṣṇa. He is also known as 'Neminātha'. There is a similarity in the names of $T\bar{\nu}$ thankara 'Neminātha' and the 22^{nd} $T\bar{\nu}$ thankara 'Neminātha'. So the students must take care and must not misunderstand them as one and the same person. They are different persons.

1.1.1 Birth and the Naming caremony

The soul of Arhat Aristanemi had enjoyed a long life of thirty-two Sāgropama in his previous birth. After that he descended from a heaven named 'Aparājit' on the 12th moonless night in the month of Kārtika in a city named Soriapur or Soripur, the son of the King Samudra Vijay and his queen Sivā. He was Gautam by Gotra. He has been called 'Vṛṣṇi-pungav' or the 'Child of the Andhak-Vṛṣṇi family'. He was born in the 'Vṛṣṇi' family. Lord Kṛṣṇa was his cousin. After the completion of the pregnancy period, queen Śivā gave birth to Ariṣṭanemi on the 5th day of the moonlit night of the month śrāvaṇa, at midnight. According to astrology he was born on the auspicious citra nakṣṭra. At his birth there was great joy and happiness everywhere. His father, king Samudra Vijay said, 'Our kingdom has been safe from everykind of harm since this child has been conceived. His mother had good dreams that indicated that there would be no harm of any kind and there will be peace and happiness in the kingdom. So the new born child should be given the name 'Ariṣṭanemi' (One who keeps harm away). All the people present unanimously accepted this name. Ariṣṭanemi had three brothers-Rathnemi, Satyanemi and Dridhanemi. In the scriptures his body has been described like this:-The body of Ariṣṭanemi bore all the auspicious symptoms. He had a pleasing personality and appearance. His belly was like a fish and his complexion was dark. He was 10 dhanu - (measurment) tall.

When Aristanemi was four years old, the *Yādavās* faced and overcame a great danger and a tense situation. Lord Kṛṣṇa had killed Kaṅsa, the king of *Mathurā*. At this, *Jarāsandha*, the maternal grandfather of Kaṅsa got furious and he sent a big army to uproot and destroy the *Yādav* dynasty. So the *Yādavās* left that place and constructed a new city '*Dwārikā*' at the sea-coast and began to live there happily.

1.1.2 The warrior

Samudra Vijay is known as one of the most courageous and famous emperors of the *Yādavā* Dynasty. He had a younger brother named VāsuDeva. VāsuDeva had two sons - Balrām and Śri Kṛṣṇa. All these three princes of the *Yādavā* Dynasty-Śri Kṛṣṇa, Balrāma and Ariṣṭanemi were known for their extra-ordinary intelligence, strength and courage. Hearing the stories of the prosperity and the wealth of the *Yādavās*, Prativāsudeva Jarāsandha decides to attack and wage a war with them.

A terrible war broke out. The Yādavā warriors killed Jarāsandha's sons. Jarāsandha was very angry at

the death of his sons and began to destroy the Yādavā army with his arrows. The Yādavā army was non-plussed.

Ariştanemi was also present there in the battle-field. *Iridra* sent a chariot equipped with all kinds of weapons alongwith Matali, the charioteer, for him. Ariştanemi, the son of Nemi, took charge of the war. He blew his conschancell Pourander. Hearing the loud sound of the conchancell, the enemy got frightened and began to tremble wit fear. The *Yādava* army got encouraged at this miraculous victory and put up a fierce attack. In the end Śri Kṛṣṇa got a historical victory for the *Yādavās* by killing Jarāsandha with his Sudarsan *Cakra* and became the nineth VāsuDeva. Prince Ariṣṭanemi was extra-ordinarily strong. Once he surprised everyone by lifting very easily Śri Kṛṣṇa's Sudarsan *cakra* on his finger. He put it back at its place at the request of the employees of the armoury. The he blew the famous conchancell *paricjanya*. The whole city of *Dwārikā* resounded with its divine and celestial sound. Śri Kṛṣṇa was highly surprised at his strength and valour.

He also showed to Śri Kṛṣṇa that he was not an ordinary child but a powerful one cy stringing his famous bow śaranga. Śri Kṛṣṇa told Ariṣṭanemi that he wanted to test his strength. He lifted his arm and asked Ariṣṭanemi to lower it. Ariṣṭanemi did so in a moment. Now it was the turn of Śri Kṛṣṇa. Ariṣṭanemi lifted his arm. Śri Kṛṣṇa tried his level best, using all his strength, he even tried with both of his hands, but could not lower Ariṣṭanemi's arm.

Having been beaten at this competition, Śri Kṛṣṇa outwardly praised Ariṣṭanemi's strength but he got disturbed and annoyed mentally. He drew the conclusion that the cause of the extra-ordinary strength of Ariṣṭanemi was his observance of celibacy (brahmacarya).

The parents and the other relatives of Prince Aristanemi had persuaded him many times to get married but they could not get his consent. So they were all disappointed. In such a situation Śri Kṛṣṇa thought of a new plan. He asked his queens to persuaded Ariṣṭanemi anynow to get married. At the request of the queens, Aristanemi agreed.

1.1.3 Preparations of the marriage and detachment from the worldly things

Finding Rājimati, the sister of Satyabhāna suitable for Prince Aristanemi from every point of view, Śri Kṛṣṇa talked to Ugrasen, her father, in this connection. Ugrasen readily accepted the proposal. Ariṣṭanemi did not oppose the attempts made for the marriage, nor did he give his acceptance in spoken words.

At the time fixed for the marriage, the marriage party was formed. All the Daśarha including Samudra Vijay, Śri Kṛṣṇa, Balrām and all the *Yādavās* joined the party happily.

As the marriage party moved forward, the happiness and the zeal of all the members of the party also grew more and more. When the marriage party reached the palace of Ugrasen, Aristanemi heard the pitiable cries of the birds and the animals and his heart was moved. When he asked his charioteer why the birds and the animals were crying, he was told that they would be killed and their meat would be served in the feast that would be held on the occasion of his marriage. For that purpose only they had been caught. Hearing this, the feeling of pity in Aristanemi's heart grew all the more stronger. He thought, 'I shall get married and thousands of the name animals will be killed and will lose their lives. I will be the cause of their death. No, I will not let this happen. I will not marry.' He asked the charioteer to take the chariot back to Dwarika. The charioteer did as he was told. Aristanemi removed all the ornaments from his body and gave them to the charioteer.

With the turning of his chariot, everything got topsy-turvy. All the members including Śri Kṛṣṇa and Balrām - of the marriage party tried to persuade Ariṣṭanemi but he refused firmly and came back to *Dwārikā*. This incidence shows how much violence and cruelty to animals was in Vogue, how thousands of animals were put to death at that time. This violence to animals had got social acceptance. Such violence was also

allowed in the name of *Yajña* or the killing of a human being. Ariṣṭanemi raised his voice against this violence. No to be the cause in any way of such violence – this sentiment is the reflection of his noble feelings of non-violence and mercy. Out of this feeling he refused even to marry. His 'satyāgraha' was really a new experiment for arousing the public-consciousness. Thus Ariṣṭanemi emerged as a great supporter and an advocate of non-violence in that period. The active step that he took in this direction against violence to animals had a great effect. The Śramaṇa culture, against the rituals, having violence in them, of the *Vedic* culture was heralded once again in India.

1.1.4 The Great Renunciation

Everybody was amazed at the great change that had taken place in Aristanemi. He was now detached from everything. It required a very strong will-power not to marry such an extra-ordinarily beautiful girl as Rājimati. Several young men, inspired by Aristanemi, got themselves detached from the worldly affairs and declared that they too would be initiated with him.

On the date fixed for initiation, Ariştanemi came in a palanquin called Uttarkuri, to the *Sahasrārmra* garden on the Ujjayat (Rai*Vāt*ak) mountain. A huge crowd of people and innumerable gods alongwith sixty four *Iridras*, followed him. Śri Krsna and many Daśarha also attended the ceremony of initiation.

In the garden, having hundred of mango trees, on the Ujjayat Mountain, under the Aśoka tree, Lord Aristanemi renounced all the ornaments and clothes. *Iridra* dedicated the renounced things to Śri Kṛṣṇa. Lord Aristanemi performed the ceremony of five handful of the uprooting of the hair during the three-day penance. Śakra carefully put the hair in his upper cloth (*uttariya*) and then dropped them into the sea of milk (*kṣeera sea*). In the fore-noon of the sixth moon day of 7 śrāwaṇa, the first month of the rainy season, when there was citra *nakṣatra*, the Lord took a vow of renunciation in the presence of the saints and got initiated along with one thousand men.

According to 'Samvāyānga Sūtra' Arhat Aristanemi put on only a single cloth. On the day of initiation, he had been on fast for two days. On the following day of the initiation he broke his fast by taking a particular dish prepared with milk and rice, the best food given to him by a man called Vardutta.

1.1.5 The Perfect Knowledge (Omniscience)

After the initiation of Neminātha, fifty four nights were spent in the stage of imperfect knowledge. Being totally detached and adopting various means of meditation and being self-absorbed, he undertook the process of destroying the *karmās*. Once he again went to Mount Ujjayant. On the very night of his arrival there, completing the various stages of destroying the *karmās*, he annihilated the four soul-destroying *karmās* on the moonless night in the month of June, on the top of the mountain Ujjit, in the period of the *nakṣatra citra* and obtained omniscience (universal knowledge) that is enternal, incomparable, having no obstacles and obstruction and is noble and complete and all knowing. He became Jin, Arhat, *Kevali*, Omniscient. He got the perfect knowledge at the time of sunrise.

The gods celebrated the occasion by holding a pious meeting of the gods, monks, nuns, male laities and the female laities. The joy of the people of $Dw\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$ knew no bounds when they came to know of the Lord's becoming omniscient. All the people, being very eager, including VāsuDeva Kṛṣṇa, went to Mount Rai $V\bar{a}t$ ak to have a pious visit to the Lord. Rājimati also went there. A $T\bar{b}rtha$ was established with the first sermon of the Lord. He appointed eleven men including Vardutta as 'Gaṇadhara' (having full knowledge of the scriptures) and $Yaksini \bar{A}ry\bar{a}$ as propagator of the religion.

1.1.6 The ultimate emancipation

Arhat Aristanemi lived at Kumār Yas for three hundred years. He spent fifty four days and nights in the state of imperfect knowledge. He was Arhat for a little less than seven hundred years. He attained salvation after completing the age of one thousand years.

In the last days of his life, Lord Aristanemi undertook fast along with 536 monks at Mount Ujjaiyant. His fast continued for 30 days and in the midnight of the eighth moonday of the month of June, when there was a combination of the *nakṣatra Citra*, he attained emancipation, destroying the remaining four *karmās* that do not completely obscure the soul.

He became the perfect one (full of intuition), the Buddha and a Liberate One. The gods and the men celebrated the ay of his ultimate emancipation. According to the Jaina tradition (*KalpaSūtra*, *Sūtra*-169) the *KalpaSūtra* was composed 84980 years after the end of his life.

2.0.0 Some episode from the life of Ariştanemi, based on Jaina $\bar{A}gama$ literature

Some very important pieces of information about the episodes from the life of Aristanemi are found at various places in the Jaina *Āgamās*. These references are valuable both from the literary and historical point of view. Given here are some selected episodes.

2.1.0 The solution of Devaki's (the mother of Lord Kṛṣṇa) query

Once Arhat Aristanemi came to the city of $Dw\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$. With him there were six persons who lived with him and were not householders. They were real brothers and looked alike in age, beauty, complexion, and the constitution of ears. Having got initiation, they were all, with he permission of Lord Aristanemi, observing fat for two days and taking food on the third day, for the whole of life.

Once it so happened that on the day of breaking the fast, all the six brothers divided into three groups, went to the city for begging food. One group (comprising two monks) entered the house of Devaki, the queen of Vāsudeva. With great pleasure Devaki gave them saffron-coloured 'Modakas' (a kind of sweets). Having received alms they went away. Just then the second group also came there. Devaki was pleased to give them too the saffron-coloured 'Modakas'. It so happened that the third group of monks also went there. This group was also cordially entertained. After giving the alms, Devaki, with great politeness, said that they had come to her for the third time. She asked whether, in this great only of Lord Śri Kṛṣṇa, they did not get ālms any where else. The real brothers of the third group were very much surprised and said that they had come to her house for the first time. They also told her that it was not so that they did not get alms at other places. Then, they told her that they were six brothers and looked alike and that they all had got initiation from Lord Aristanemi. They were observing a particular types of penance. They went for begging food in three groups. Very likely the other two groups had come to her earlier and she might have given alms to them.

The monks gave their introduction and said that hey were six real brothers, the sons of a learned man named Nag and his wife Sulsa of the Bhaddilpur city. It was then the queen Devaki realized that they were six monks, who had come to her in three groups. But a doubt came into her mind. When she was a young girl, a young *Śramaṇa* named Atimuktak, predicted that eight sons, all alike, like Nal-Kuber, would be born to her and no woman in the country would have such sons. How could these six monks be the sons of some other woman?

For the solution of her doubt, queen Devaki went to Lord Ariştanemi and told him everything. She also put forth her doubt. Providing a solution, Lord Ariştanemi told her that in fact those six monks were her sons. A god ramed Harinegmesi had put her sons into the womb of Sulsā and put Sulsā's sons who had recently died, into her womb.

Hearing this solution, Devaki's heart was fill ed with motherly love and affection and she was very happy to see her six sons as monks.

2.2.0 The initiatino of Gajsukumāl (The younger brother of Lord Śri Kṛṣṇa)

When Devaki came to know from Aristanemi about her six sons, she felt it very much that she gave

birth to seven sons, including Kṛṣṇa, but she could not enjoy their childhood. When Lord Śri Kṛṣṇa came to know this, he pleased *Harinegmeśi* with his prayers and worship and got the informatino that Devaki would have her eighth son - he would be the younger brother of Lord Śri Kṛṣṇa and in his youth would get initiated by Ariṣṭanemi. Śri Kṛṣṇa told this thing to Devaki. In due course of time, Devaki gave birth to her eighth son who was named Gajsukumāl.

In the city of Dwārikā there lived a Brāhmiṇa named Somil. He had a daughter named Soma. Śri Kṛṣṇa asked her hand for his younger brother Gajsukumāl. Somil accepted the proposal. Śri Kṛṣṇa put Soma in the harem with the other girls so that she might be the worthy wife of Gajsukumāl.

In the meantime, Gajsukumāl, hearing the sermons of Ariṣṭanemi, got detached from the world. Accepting the request of Śri Kṛṣṇa, he became king for a day and then, getting intiation, renounced the household. At the very same right, he went to the cremation ground and got busy in a particular type of meditation-The great idol of the *Bhikṣu*. By chance, Somil, his father-in-law, passed that way and seeing him as a monk, he got very angry that he had given up his daughter. He wanted to take revenge. So he put some earth on the head of Gajsukumāl, who was in deep meditation and also put some burning coals on the earth. After that he went away.

Monk Gajsukumāl bore the pain of burning with great equanimity and became a free soul, the Sidha, the Budha that very night. When Śri Kṛṣṇa went to Ariṣṭanemi and asked him about his younger brother Gajsukumāl, the monk, he told him everything and also told that the Brāhmiṇa Somil, the Murderer of Gajsukumāl would come across him and would immediately die out of fear. When Śri Kṛṣṇa was going back, everything happened in the same way as Ariṣṭanemi had predicted. Seeing Śri Kṛṣṇa, Somil was frightened. He fell down and died.

2.3.0 Renunciation of many kings, princes and queens

In the period of Arhat Aristanemi, so many kings, queens and princes got initiation from him. Some of the notable persons among them are as given below-

2.3.1 Nişadhakumar

He was the son of the king BalDeva. His mother's name was ReVāti. BalDeva was the step brother of Śri Kṛṣṇa and was elder to him. BalDeva was the son of VāsuDeva's second queen Rohini. In the Jaina tradition the elder brother of Śri Kṛṣṇa is known as BalDeva or Rāma. He is supposed to be one of the sixty three notable persons (24 Tīrthaṅkarās, 12 Cakravartīs, 9 VāsuDevas, 9 BalDevas, 9 PrativāsuDevas) thus 63 notable persons are born in every half-cycle of the era in the regions of Bharat and Erawat.

In the fifth section (*variatasāo*) (twelfth sub-section of *Niryāvaliya*) the mention of *Niṣadha* adopting the self-restraint of Lord Aristanemi had been made. His keeping fast and being born as a god and his getting salvation in the next birth has also been mentioned.

2.3.2 The five Pāādavāsand Draupadi

The legend of the five *Pāridavās*—the warriors of the *Mahābhārat* war, famous in history, and Draupadi is found in the 16th chapter of '*Nāyādhammakahāo*'. It is very important from the historical point of view. The *Pāridavās* in the end get initiated from the monks. All the five *Pāridavās* study the fourteen *pūrvās* and perform penance for many years. Draupadi gets initiated from Āryā Suvratā and studies the eleven angas and practices penance for many years. When Ariṣṭanemi, the 22nd Tīrthankara, in the last days of his life, was walking about in the *Saurāṣṭra* Republic, the five *Pāridavās* also started for *Saurāṣṭra* to have his *darśan*. When they were still on the way, they got the news of Lord Ariṣṭanemi having got salvation after observing fast for one month. Then they also ascend Mount Ujjayan and decide to observe fast. After observing fast for two months, they get *kaivalyajñāna* (omniscience) and get salvation. Āryā Draupadi worships the *śrāmanya*-

paryāya for many years and in the end, after observing fast for one month, meets her end and is born as the fifth god. Her soul will complete its life in that form and ultimately, taking birth in the region of *Mahāvideha*, will get salvation.

2.3.3 Rājimati

Rājimati, Bhogrāj Ugrasen's daughter, to whom Aristanemi was to be married, was very unhappy, when she was abandoned by him. After that, Rathnemi, a younger brother of Aristanemi, was attracted towards her and wanted to marry her. But by that time, Rājimati had got detached from all the worldly pleasures and she persuaded Rathnemi not to ask her to marry him.

The detachment of Rajimati

Rājimati was suffering from the pangs of separation from her (Omniscient) dearest Aristanemi. When she got the good news of his becoming 'Kevlai', she was overwhelmed with joy. She had already given up the worldly pleasures. Now she determined to follow the path of her husband. Her parents were very unhappy when they came to know of her decision, but she, anyhow, persuaded them to allow her to follow her husband's path. She uprooted her hair and adopted the life of self-control. Having got initiated herself, she initiated many other women. Then, accompanied by many nuns, she set out to worship Lord Aristanemi. On the way, Rājimati and all the other nuns got wet due to sudden rains. They took shelter in different caves. By chance it so happened that Muni Rathnemi was already there in the cave which Rajimati entered. As it was dark, Rājimati did not know that there was someone in the cave. She took off her clothes and spread them to dry. Suddenly there was lightening and Rathnemi caught sight of her. At one time, before getting initiated, Rājimati had rejected his proposal of marriage. Rathnemi was overcome by lust. He forgot that he was a monk. He again proposed to her. Rājimati condemned him severely. Heating her reproach, Rathnemi felt very much ashamed. His mind again got fixed in religion. He went to Lord Aristanemi and made a confession and got self-purification through pratikramana. By performing severe penance he destroyed his deeds and ultimately got salvation. This poignant description is found in the 22nd chapter of "Uttarādhyayan". We find this description in the second chapter of 'Daśvaikālika'.

Rājimati also got omniscience and finally salvation by performing penance and observing fasts and by meditation.

2.3.4 Thāvaccāputra

The son of the famous female laity Thāvaccā of *Dwārikā*, got famous by the name of his mother. Having come to know of the form of the world, Thāvaccāputra looked forward to the arrival of Lord Ariṣṭanemi. After sometime he arrived Thāvaccāputra went with his mother to attend the pious meeting of the Lord. He listened to the sermon of Anṣṭanemi. He got enlightened and with the permission of his mother got initiated. Abandoning his 32 wives he alongwith one thousand men renounce the household. His renunciation took place in the Nandanvan of Mount Revtak. At that time Lord Ariṣṭanemi was residing at the house of the *Yakṣa* Surpriya. Thāvaccāputra practiced the 14 *purvas* like the *sāmāyikī* etc., learning from the monks and performed different types of penance. Lord Ariṣṭanemi handed him over all the one thousand persons, who had been initiated with him, as disciples.

Thavaccaputra, the monk, with the permission of Lord Aristanemi, went to some other place. Selak, the king of Selakpur and his five hundred ministers adopted the śravāk religion and became the worshippers of the śramana. Sudarśana, a rich man of the city of Sogandhikā, was the follower of an ascetic named Śuka. He believed in the purity-based religion. Thavaccaputra told him about the religion based on humility and equanimity. He also became the follower of the Śramana. Afterwards, was brought the ascetic Sudarśan to Thavaccaputra. There was a long discussion. In the end, Śuka, along with his one hundred disciples, the

uprooting his hair, got initiation from the Thāvaccāputra. Šuka also proved to be a very influential *aṇagār*. In the end, Thāvaccāputra undertook a fast in the sanding posture on a black stone on *Mount Puṇdarīk*. He practiced for one month for his spiritual death. He got omniscience enlightenment and became a Sidha. King Selak and his five hundred minister got initiation from Śuka. The story of the fall and rise of king Selak is very interesting.

2.3.5 Gautam etc. the ten sons of Andhaka-Vṛṣṇi-Dhārinī

In the first section of Aritagardasāo it has been told that Gautam, Samudra, Sāgar, Gambhir, Stimit, Achal, Kampilya, Akṣobha, Prasen and Viṣṇu, the ten princes born of queen Dhārinī, the wife of Andhaka-Vṛṣṇi, the king of Dwara Vāti got initiation from Ariṣṭanemi, studied the eleven angas, completed the special penance of the idols of 12 bhikṣus austerity, performed the guṇratnatapa, a type of penance practiced for one month to have a spiritual death, followed a pure conduct for twelve years and in the end achieved the ultimate goal of life.

2.3.6 Akşobha etc. the eight sons of Aúdhaka-Vṛṣṇi and Dhārinī

The mention of these sons is also there in the second section of *Aritagaddasāo*. The only difference is that their *dikṣā-paryāya* is said to be sixteen years. As regards the names of theses sons, some of them are the same as have been mentioned in the first section, some are different.

2.3.7 The other princes

Šaraņ Kumār, Aritagaddasāo 3/16, Daruk Kumār and Anāvṛṣti Kumār (the same, 3/110, Jali Kumār, Mayali, Upjalī, Puruṣ Sen and Vārisen (the same, 4/2-6) were the sons of king Vāsudeva and queen Dhārinī. Sumukh Kumār, Durmukh Kumār and Koop Kumār (the same, 113-118) were the sons of king Baldeva and queen Dhārinī. Pradyumna was the son of king Śri Kṛṣṇa and queen Ruppinī. Samba Kumār was the son of king Śri Kṛṣṇa and queen Jambu Vātī. Anirudha was the son of king Pradyumna and queen Vaidarbhī; Satyanemi and Draḍhanemi Aritagaddasāo 4/6 were the sons of king Samudra Vijay and queen Šivā. The mention of their coming to Dwāra Vātī to Ariṣṭanemi and their getting initiation and their attaining salvation is available.

2.3.8 The Initiation of the queens

Padmāvatī, Gourī, Gāndharī, Lakṣaṇā, Suseemā, Jambu*Vāt*ī, Satyabhāma, Ruppinī, Moolśri and Moolduttā, the queens of Śri Kṛṣṇa got the initiations from Lord Ariṣṭanemi through Āryā Yakṣinī, the head of the nuns, uprooted their hair and finally attained salvation. (5/1-43)

3.1 The *Gaga* community

His gaṇa-community persons who had a complete knowledge of scriptures. Lord Ariṣṭanemi had 18 'gaṇās' and 18 gaṇa community was very rich in quality as there were 18,000 excellent monks such as Vardatta etc. and 40 000 excellent nuns such as Āryā Yakṣinīit. They had 100069 male laities such as Narida and 300039 female taities such as Mahāsuvratā etc.

In the group (community) of Lord Aristanemi there were 414 persons who had the knowledge of the *poorvās*, the persons who were not the Jinas but the very alike of the Jinas and knew very well the meaning of all immortality.

Such persons as having knowledge upto a certain extent but not yet having attained perfect knowledge. Similarly there were 1500 such persons as having perfect knowledge, 1500 persons having unmeasurable knowledge, 800 *vādis* (expounders of the theory) and 1600. From his group of the *śramans*, 1500 *śramans* and 3000 nuns came out as the ones who had achieved the ultimate goal of life.

4.1.0 Lord Aristanemi–From the perspective of historical facts

We have, so far, gone through the life-history of Lord Aristanemi as described in the Jaina literature. The *Uttarādhyayan*, the *Gyātādharma-Kathā* etc. are in themselves, as important historical evidences as the other literature. Although the accounts given in the Jaina *Āgamās* are beyond any doubt from the historical point of view, yet we will discuss some more solid evidences regarding Śri Aristanemi, the 22nd *Tīrtharkara*, Śri Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva and others based on the *Vedic* and the Boddha literature and some archaeological facts.

4.1.1 The impact of Śramaņa culture of Aristanemi on the Vedic's

In the last part of the *Vedic* period there had been a movement against animal-sacrifice. During the reign of *Vasuceidyo-parichār*, the king of Magadha, there had been a discussion between Par*Vāt* and Nārada on that very issue. Both the Jaina and the *Brāhmiṇa* classics agree on the occurrence of such an incident. Kṛṣṇa Vāsudeva, highly influenced by the ideas of his brother Ariṣṭanemi, the *Tīrthankara*, and his brother Balrām were the greatest supporters of this movement of non-violence. In the period following the war of the *Mahābhārata* a majority of the public, except a few *Vedic Brāhmiṇas*, began to follow this movement. The leaders of this movement were mainly *Kṣatriyas*.

The people who did not directly belong to the *śramana* tradition had already started opposing the violence that took place in the yajhas and seeking spiritualism right from the Vodic traditions. They gave birth to the mysticism of the *Upnisadās*. *Videha* was their centre. *Brāhmā* came to be worshipped in place of the Vedic gods like Indra and the others. The Vedic yajnas were compared to the broken nails. Self-analysis and self-realization came to be regarded as the ultimate aim of life. People were preached to give up bad conduct, to observe self-control, contemplation, purity, control over speech, action and self, meditation, devotion and peace, science, and right knowledge to attain Salvation. In fact there is such a wonderful similarity in the ideology of the *Uprisadās* and the Jaina spirituality that very often one is mistaken as the other. In many of the Upnisadās even the typical Jaina terminology is found being used. There is no doubt that the Aupnisadic ideology of the post-Vedic period is the indicator of the resurgence of the śramana culture in that age. That was a nice effort of the co-ordination of the Vedic and the śramana cultures. We do not find any evidence of a *yajfia* beings performed even by a king. The public in general developed an aversion for the violence that occurred when a yajfia was performed. The Wate religion had grown so complex and full of imposture that it no longer remained within the reach and understanding of the general pubic. Gradually it was confined to a few learned Brāhmina scholars. The pubic in general followed either the śramans or the ideology of the Upnisadās as preached by the truthful Janakas or the new ideology that laid stress on good conduct and devotion and that was arising indirectly out of the co-ordination of the two cultures. The public was satisfied with this ideology. The orGanization of the four varnās was the chief speciality of this new wave of this age.

The first propounder of the said resurrection of the *Śramaṇa* culture was Neminātha or Ariṣṭanemi, the 22nd Tīrthaṅkara.

Śri Kṛṣṇa adopted the path of activity and Neminātha that of unattachment. There is an abundance of the idols of Neminatha among the ancient idols of the Jaina *Tīrtharikarās* that are found in different parts of Sound India and that is not without reason. At that time only the *Vedic* religion and the Kingdoms of the *Vedic Kṣatriyas* were holding strong. But the destructive war of the *Mahābhārat* rendered them lustreless. It is told that even the *Pāridava* brothers performed Tapa as the Jaina monks and the followers of Neminātha, and, thereby attained salvation. Śri Kṛṣṇa and Balrām were very powerful and influential political leaders of that period. Due to their influence the *Vedic* religion, in the *yajñās* of which animal sacrifice was performed, lost its impact in the north and also in the central parts of the country. How the revolutions and the political changes taking place in the later period helped the resurrection of the *Śramaṇa* culture, pioneered by *Tīrtharikara* Neminātha, has been explained in the paragraphs given above.

Even a few decades earlier, historians doubted the authenticity of Neminātha. But now that it is supposed that history goes behind upto the war of the *Mahābhārat* and upto 6th century B.C. and when the authenticity of Śri Kṛṣṇa is not doubted, there is no reason why the authenticity of *Tīrtharkara* Ariṣṭanemi, who was a cousin of Śri Kṛṣṇa, should be doubted. In fact Dr. NāgendraNātha Basu, the famous compiler, Dr. Fuherrer, the archaeologist, Prof. Barnet, Col. Todd, Mr. Karva, Dr. Harisatya Bhattācārya, Dr. Pran Nātha *Vidyālarkār*, Dr. Radhākriṣṇan and many other scholars do not doubt the authenticity of Neminātha. Descriptions about him are found in all the four *Vedās*, in Bitareya Brāhmīn, *Yaksa Nirukta, Sarvāņukramanica ¹ Ṭikā, Vedarth Deepikā, Sāyan Bhaṣya, Mahābhārat, BhagVāt, Skund Purāṇa, Mārkandeya Purāṇa* etc., the famous ancient Brāhmīnic scriptures. Besides his descriptions in the above-mentioned scriptures, the influence of *Tīrtharkara* Neminātha seems to have been felt even outside the country. Col. Todd says in his 'Rajasthan', 'It seems to me that in the olden times there had been four Buddhas or the learned men. The first of them was Ādinātha or Rṣabha Deva, the second was Neminātha. It was this Neminātha who was the first 'Odin' of the Scanchnavians and the first 'Pho' of the Chinese.'

Dr. Rādhākriṣṇa has written, 'There is no doubt that Jainism existed even before Vardhamāna and Pārshvarātha. (Indian philosophy, Vol. 1, P. 287: Jaina tradition ascribes the origin of the system of RṣabhaDeva, who lived many centuries back. There is evidence to show that so far back as the first century B.C. there were people who were worshipping RṣabhaDeva, the first Tārthankara. There is no doubt that Jainism prevailed even before Vardhamāna or Pārśvanātha.)

4.1.2 Aristanemi in the *Vedic* Literature

According to Ācārya Mahāpragya, 'Ariṣṭanemi was the 22nd Tīrtharikara. He has not yet been fully considered as a historic person. But if Śri Kṛṣṇa is considered a historic person, there is no reason why Ariṣṭanemi should not be considered as one. There is no reason not to be believed the existence of the Kauravās, the Pāridavās, Jarāsandha, Dwārikā, the dynasties of the Yādavās, the Andhakās and the Vṛṣṇis etc. Even if we do not take into consideration the extensions made to the Purāṇas and the imagination some basic facts still remain there.'

'There are 45 studies represented by all the 45 enlightened persons in *Rsi-Bhāsit*. 20 of them had been during the period of Lord Aristanemi. Appendix-1, *gāthā*-1: The studies represented by them are the proofs in themselves of the existence of Aristanemi. (*Uttarādhyayan*: An analytic study, p. 7)

Taking into consideration the authentic and simple human incidents from the simple biography of Lord Aristanemi got from the Jaina- $\bar{A}gain\bar{a}s$ about his birth-place, his dynasty, initiation, meditation, personality and this spread of religion, there remains no reason to doubt his historicity.

Many poems about the incidents in the life of Aristanemi have been composed in both the Švetāmbar and the Digambar sects. He has produced a deep influence on the Indian culture by his life and thoughts.

Arhat Aristanemi spread the religion emphasising humility. This religion means the religion that is helpful in purifying the soul. He did not consider the purity of the body the way of salvation. That is why he revolted against the religion emphasizing purity and raised his voice against it.

The period of the origination of the Boddha Literature is not prior to Lord Buddha. A large part of the Jaina Literature is not prior to Lord Mahāvīra. Some part of the tradition of Lord Pārśva is also mixed in it and it is very likely. The literature of the tradition of Lord Ariştanemi is not available.

The existence of the *Vedās* is considered to be five thousands years old. The literature that is available is of the later part of the period of Śri Kṛṣṇa. A sketch upto the period of Śri Kṛṣṇa may be drawn with the help of the literature available. The condition prior to this goes into the far past.

Whether the Aristanemi mentioned here is Lord Aristanemi is a matter of research, but some scholars are of the opinion that these references pertain to Arhat Aristanemi, (Jainism, the oldest living Religion (Jyoti Prasād Jain), p. 22).

Dr. Radhākriṣṇan writes-'In the Yajurveda, the mention of these three Tīrthankarās-Ŗṣabha Deva, Ajitnātha and Ariṣṭanemi is found. (Indian philosophy Vol. 1, P. 287: 'The Yajurveda mentions the names o three Tīrthankarās-Ŗṣabha, Ajitnātha and Ariṣṭanemi')

According to Ācārya Śri Mahāpragya, 'The word 'Ariṣṭanemi' occurs four times in the Rgveda (Rgveda, 1/4/89/6; 1/24/180/10; 3/4/53/17; 10/12/178/1). In the Mahābhārata, the word 'Tārkṣya' has been used as a synonym to Ariṣṭanemi. (Mahābhārat, Śānti Parva, 288/4.) The sermon that Tārkṣya Ariṣṭanemi preached to king Sagar regarding salvation is compared to the principles of the Jaina religion relating to salvation. The sermon is like this—'Sagar! The pleasure of salvation is the real pleasure in the world. But the foolish person who is anxious about earning money and the other things and who is attached to his sons and cartle, does not know the reality. It is very difficult to cure a person whose mind is attached to the worldly pleasures and whose heart is restless because the person who is attached to the bonds of love and affection is not fit to attain salvation.

In this whole chapter the worthlessness of the world, the importance of salvation, to make effort for its attainment and the form of the liberated has been explained. In the period of Sagar, the *Vedic* people did not believe in salvation, so this sermon cannot be of any *Vedic* Ascetic. Here the word 'Tārkṣya' Ariṣṭanemi must have been used for Lord Ariṣṭanemi. It seems that the interpreters of the Rgveda have changed its meaning. 'Ariṣṭanemi' is not only an adjective. In the olden times it was used as a name. In the Mahābhārata, the son of Marici is said to have two names—Ariṣṭanemi and Kaśyapa. Some people call him by the name of Ariṣṭanemi and some by the name of Kaśyapa. (Mahābhārata, Śāntiparva, 208/8). In the Rgveda too Tarkṣya Ariṣṭanemi has been eulogied (Rgveda, 10/12/178/1). According to Chāndogya Upriṣad the spiritual guide (teacher) of Śri Kṛṣṇa was the Rṣi Ghor Āangiras 3/17/61.

According to the Jaina Āgamās, the spiritual guide of Śri Kṛṣṇa was Ariṣṭanemi, the 22nd Tīrtharikara. (Gyātādharmakathā 3/51). The sermon that Ghor Āangiras preached to Śri Kṛṣṇa is not different from the Jaina tradition. 'Thou art everlasting, immortal and indestructible; having a very subtle spirit. Having this trinity, Śri Kṛṣṇa got detached to the other sport and amusements. Jaina philosophy is based on the theory pertaining to soul. The sermon that Ghor Aangiras preached to Śri Kṛṣṇa is related to the concept pertaining to soul. In there is a mention of every Puddha named Āangiras. They had come during the reign of Ariṣṭanemi. On this basis is may be supposed that Ghor Āangiras was either a disciple of Ariṣṭanemi or a monk.

The name of Ariştanem had been prevalent among great men in the period of Mahāvīra and Buddha. In the third chapter of 'Larikā Vātār' one of the many names of Buddha is Ariştanemi too. It has been written there, 'As many namesere used for one thing, similarly Buddha has got innumerable names. Some people call him by the name of Tathāgat, the others as Swyambhu, Nāyak, Vināyak, Parināyak, Buddha, Rṣi, Brāhmīn, Viṣṇu, Iśwar, Pradhān, Kapil, Bhutanāl, Bhāskar, Ariṣṭanemi, Rāma, Vyās, Šuka, Indra, Bāli and Varuna etc. (Boddha Dharma Daršan, p. 162)

Ācārya Śri Mahāpragya writes, 'There is a co-related mention of Ariṣṭanemi and Śri Kṛṣṇa in Prabhas *Purāṇa*. Ariṣṭanemi is said to be related to the mountain Rewat too. And it has been told there that had called Neminātha by the name of Śivā. Vāman had performed penance before Lord Neminātha on the mountain Girnar to get the Strength to bind Bāli.' These extracts prove the family and religious relations between Śri Kṛṣṇa and Ariṣṭanemi. The 22nd study of *Uttarādhyayan* also proves it.

Professor Prāṇ Nātha has read the sheets of copper found at Prabhās Patan like this-Deva Nebuśar Nezar of the community of Su-Jāti, the king of the kingdom of Ret Nagar has come. He has come to the place

of YaduNātha ($Dw\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$). He has got a temple built. He has offered this temple for ever to Surya-Devnemi who is the god of the Mount Re $V\bar{a}t$ which is like paradise.

There have been two emperors having the names Nebuśar and Nezar along with the emperors of Bābal. The period of the former is 2000 B.C. and of the latter 6th or 7th century B.C. One of them, coming over to $Dw\bar{a}rik\bar{a}$, had got a temple of Lord Neminātha built on the Mount Re $V\bar{a}t$ (Girnāra). In this way both from literature and from the sheets of copper the existence of Aristanemi is proved. (Uttarādhyayan, a critical study, p. 7-9)

4.1.3 The Proofs of the Historicity of Aristanemi and Śri Kṛṣṇa

The life stories of Arhat Ariştanemi and VāsuDeva Kṛṣṇa are co-related. Kṛṣṇa was the son of Vāsudeva and Ariṣṭanemi was the son of Samudra Vijay, the elder brother of Vāsudeva. Thus both of them belonged to the same family and to the same lineage. Not only this, the accounts of the lives of both these greatmen are so closely connected with each other that when the account of one of them is given, it becomes necessary to give the account of the other as well.

Although there is a detailed description of the accounts of the lives of both the great men in the Jaina *Āgamās*, it is strange that in the books of the *Brāhmiṇa* tradition, no mention of the account of the life of Ariṣṭanemi is found along with that of Kṛṣṇa. Perhaps there has been some sort of mentality behind it.

According to the Jaina Āgamās, Kṛṣṇa was a great devotee of Arhat Anṣṭanemi. Many of his sons and queens and many members of the family became the disciples of Ariṣṭanemi. There is no mention of Kṛṣṇa as a god in the Vedās. Even in the Chāndogya Upniṣad there is a description of the real form of Kṛṣṇa. In the period of the Purāṇas the form of Kṛṣṇa is found in the Jaina Āgaruās. This fact cannot be denied that he was impressed by Ariṣṭanemi and his speech. The light of the spiritual consciousness of Sourāṣṭra was illuminating the whole of India at that time.

According to the *Vedic* literature Śri Kṛṣṇa was born in the Yadu Dynasty. His father's name was Vāsudeva and mother's name was Devaki. According to the Jaina *Āgamās* too the name of his father was Vāsudeva and he was born in the *Andhak-Vṛṣṇi* or the *Vṛṣṇi* Dynasty.

In the Jaina $\bar{A}gam\bar{a}s$ there is a mention of many incidents from the life of Kṛṣṇa as a person destroying the varity of the wicked people. Making a terrifying roar, he destroyed the proud wrestler Cānūr. Cānūr was a giant of Kaṅsa. The story of his being killed in wrestling is there in the *Bhāgwat* too. Kṛṣṇa killed a wicked bull named Rṛṣṭa. There is an account of the killing of bull *Vṛṣabhāsur Ariṣṭa* in the *Bhāgwat* too.

According to the Vedic scriptures Kṛṣṇa was able to kill Kaṅsa and won the kingdom of $Mathur\bar{a}$. There is a description of Kṛṇa snatching the drown of Kaṅsa.

Such a description is found in the *Vedic* granthas that in spite of over powering *Mathurā*, Kṛṣṇa could not keep it under him for a long time on account of the attack of Jarāsandha, the king of Magadha (he was the father-in-law of Kansa), Kṛṣṇa had to give up the kingdom of *Mathurā* and he made *Dwārikā* his capital.

In the Jaina Āgamās there is an account of Kṛṣṇa's battle with Jarāsandha, but in them Kṛṣṇa is said to have won and not being defeated. There is no account int he Jaina Āgamās that Kṛṣṇa had to go leaving Mathurā. Jarāsandha had fought with Kṛṣṇa with a wheel and he was killed being wounded with his own wheel.

According to the *Vedic* assumption, after making *Dwārikā* his capital, Kṛṣṇa made Rukminī, the princess of Vidarbh, his chief queen. The total number of Kṛṣṇa's queen was 16,000 and he had 180,000 sons. There is no mention of Rukminī in the Jaina *Āgamās* but the name 'Rukminī' is found. In order to get Rukminī,

Kṛṣṇa had to fight with Siśupāl. According to the Jaina Āgamās, Kṛṣṇa had eight chief queen among whom Padmāvatī Devi held the highest position. Here also the number of his queen is said to be 16,000 but the names of only nine of them are found. There is no mention of the number of his sons, but he certainly had two sons named Samba and Pradyumna. There is a mention of his grandson Arrivudha.

According to the *Vedic* tradition, after the re-establishment of the *Pāridavās* in Kuru, Kṛṣṇa returned to *Dwārikā*. But one day on the occasion of a festival, the Yadu princes got drunk and began to fight and kill one another. Pradyumn,a Kṛṣṇa's son was killed. Balrām, Kṛṣṇa's brother was also killed. In this way the whole family was destroyed. Being very unhappy, Kṛṣṇa went to a nearby jungle. There he lay down near a bush, torn with worry. A hunter took him to be a deer and aimed an arrow at him. The arrow directly struck the lowest part of his foot and Kṛṣṇa died. After that *Dwārikā* was Devastated by the sea.

In the Jaina Āgamās too, the destruction of the city of <code>DwāraVātī</code> is said to have been caused by drunkenness, fire and sea. There is a sight difference regarding the death of Kṛṣṇa. According to the Jaina assumption, the city of <code>DwāraVātī</code> was burnt by the wrath of a Rṛṣi Dweepāyan. Kṛṣṇa was bereaved of his parents and the other relatives. Taking the remaining of them, with him, he proceeded towards <code>Pāndu Mathurā</code>, situated in the south direction. All the five <code>Pārdavās</code>, the sons of king Pandu, lived in <code>Mathurā</code> at that time. On the way, in the forest of the city of <code>Kauśāmbi</code>, Kṛṣṇa took some rest, lying on the ground under the <code>nyagrodha</code> tree, covering his body with a piece of yellow cloth. At that time, the sharp arrow, released by Jarā Kumār from his blow, struck his left foot. Pierced by it, Kṛṣṇa met his end.

There is no description of Kṛṣṇa stealing butter and as a over of the Gopis. These aspects of Kṛṣṇa's life are in fact very recent. All the historians are unanimous regarding this. His real life is that of a great warrior and redemptive from danger and difficulties. Only this form of Kṛṣṇa'is real and ancient. In the Jaina $\bar{A}gam\bar{a}s$, such a real and pure form of Kṛṣṇa is found.

In the description given in the \$\bar{A}gam\bar{a}s\$, Kṛṣṇa appears as a great warrior. He was known as the Supreme person and was the Vasudeva of his time. He was vigorous, brilliant, influential and celebrated. He had great self-respect and was very strong. He gave protection to those who sought it and was worthy of shelter and protection. He was very hadsome and charming and was sweet-spoken. He was true to his word and was large hearted. Arhat Ariṣṭanemi and Vāsudeva Kṛṣṇa are the two great propounders of the Indian culture. Ariṣṭanemi was a sage of the path of detachment. He was the greatest preacher—Tīrtharikara of the Śramaṇa culture. According to the Jan tradition, in the future too, Kṛṣṇa will be the 12th Tīrtharikara, having the name Amam (vee) in the city named Śatdvār in the Pāndu district (tuin) in this very continent of Jambu in the next period when there is a deterioration and downfall in age, profound studies tastes, health and beauty.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

Essay-type Questions

Proving the historicity of Ariştanemi, evaluate his relation with Śri Kṛṣṇa.

Short-answer-type Questions :

- 1. What sacrifice did Aristanemi make to do away with the traditions and practices of violence that were prevalent in his time?
- 2. The teachings and the sermons of Aristanemi had a great and intense effect on the royal families of the period. Prove it.

3. Objective-type Questions:

1. Ariştanemi was a very good warrior. This fact came to be known in his war with

2.	The six sons of got initiated by Aristanemi and received 'Modakas' (a kind of sweets) as alms from their mother.
3.	When the five <i>Pāridavās</i> were in the city of, they got the newsof emancipation of
4.	persons got initiated along with Thāvaccāputra.
5.	Vaman performed penance at Girnāra before Lord Neminātha to be able to bind
6.	Rājmati got enlightened by rebuking and scolding him.
7.	In the ' Upn iṣada', we get the name of who was probably Ariṣṭanemi himself, as the teacher of Śri Kṛṣṇa.
8.	the teacher of Sri Kṛṣṇa. In, there is no mention of Kṛṣṇa as a god.
9.	In 'Mahābhārata' the term has been used as synonym to Aristanemi.
10.	From the twenty-second chapter of the relation between Śri Kṛṣṇa and Ariṣṭanemi

Acknowledgement:

is proved.

- Arişţanemi and Vāsudeva Kṛṣṇa- by Śricand Rāmpuriā, Jaina Śwetāmbar Terāpanthī Mahāsabhā, 1. Calcutta.
- Jaina Darśan : Manan and Mīmāṃsā-by Ācārya Mahāpragya, Ādarś Sāhitya Sangh, Curu. Mīmāṃsā 2.
- 3. Bhārtiya Itihās : Ek Dṛṣṭi-By Dr. Jyoti Prasād Jain, Bhartiya Gyān Peeth, Delhi.
- 4. Uttarādhyayan : Ek Sameekṣātmaka Adyayan-oy Muni Nathmal, Jaina Śwetāmber Terāpanthī Mahāsabhā, Calcutta.
- Choubess Tīrthankarās-By Dr. Gokul Candra Jain. 5.

Compiled By-

Jain Vishva Bharati Inst Prof. Muni Mahendra Kumār Dr. Samani Sthitpragyā

LESSON 2 (A)

JAINA HISTORY - PĀRŚVANĀTH

After getting acquainted with all phases of life of R sabha and Aristanemi, now you would like to know about 23rd Tīrthaṅkara Pārśvanātha. Period of Pārśvanātha is only 250 years before that of 24rd Tīrthaṅkara Lord Mahāvīra. From this point of view his period becomes more important in the context of historical chronology. Though Indian history of pre-Mahāvīra era is not very clear, even then it is convenient to understand the period of Pārśvanātha based upon literary references. In this lesson, we will attempt to learn about the traditional biography of Pārśvanātha in context with historical and contemporary circumstances

1.1.0 Twenty third *Tīrthaákara* Lord Pārśvanātha: traditional history

Lord Pārśvanātha was 23rd *Tīrtharikara* of Jains. 'How important was his role in the ascent of Jaina religion?' The following statement of Dr. Karl Sharpainter properly enlightens this point. 'Jaina religion is definitely ancient than Mahāvīra. His famous predecessor Pārśva has definitely lived as a real person. And because of that, important statements of basic principals could have been conlified into scripture form much before Mahāvīra'. It is clear that Lord Pārśvanātha's historical existence is undoubtful

1.1.1 Birth

He, after enjoying a very happy heavenly life in his previous birth, was conceived by Vāmādevi, queen of Aśvasen, the king of Vārāṇasi in north Bharat, on 4th day of the dark fortnight of the month of caitra, in viśākha constellation. Because of 14 great dreams she saw, all knew a Tīrtharikara would be born in their kingdom. There was an atmosphere of happiness all over the state.

Lord Pārśvanātha was happily born at mid-right of 10th day of dark fortnight of the month of poşa, after completion of pregnancy period. After the celebrations by gods were over, king Aśvasena orGaṇīzed a birthday celebration all over his kingdom. Every person in the kingdom obtained his share of happiness of a birth of a son. During the celebrations, all custom duty, excise etc. were totally absolved. All prisons were emptied, and beggars were turned into non-beggars

There was a big feast on the day of name giving ceremony. During the discussion king Aśvasena said, 'Once during the pregnancy period I, with the queen had gone to a park. A black snake came there in the dark night. The black cobra in the dark black night was not visible. Even then the passing by (meaning 'Pārśva') snake was seen by the queen. She awakened me and took me to another place. That is how my life was saved. According to my view, this was effect of the embryo. Therefore, the child should be named Pārśvakumāra'. Everyone addressed the child by that name. Here it should be noted that he was named 'Pāss', for which popular Sanskrit version became 'Pārśva'. But, according to the happening it should be the form 'paśyak', meaning the seer. This is a subject of research.

1.1.2 Marriage

As soon as Pārśvakumāra entered youth, his proportionate body became very handsome. His magnificent beauty was known and discussed far and wide.

At that time, emperor Prasenjit was ruling in *Kuśasthal*. His princess Prabhāvātī was faultlessly beautiful and was very virtuous. Now she was also of a marriageable age. And emperor Prasenjit was looking for a matching bridegroom. One day the princess Prabhāvātī heard a song sung by kinnaries (demigoddesses). In

the song there was praising about magnificent beauty of Pārśvakumāra and also admiration of great future of the girl who would become his wife. Princess was seized with love towards Pārśvakumāra. She made a mental decision, that, if she married, she would marry that prince only; otherwise she would remain a spinster for whole life. Her tender mind manifested this to her friends. And those well wishing friends reached this news to the king. Now all the efforts started in this direction. Emperor himself wanted to go to $V\bar{a}r\bar{a}nasi$ to meet emperor Aśvasena with this request. But one obstruction emerged.

In those days a Muslim king ruled Kalinga (Kingdom). He was one of the most powerful rulers of his time. When he heard about the glory of beauty and virtues of the princess; he was tempted to acquire her. He sent a message to emperor Prasenjit, to give Prabhā $V\bar{a}t\bar{t}$'s hand in his hand or otherwise prepare for war. This threat unsettled King Prasenjit. But how could he give away his daughter's hand to a Muslim king under pressure of his power? Now he had no option but to beg for help from other rulers. He sent his messenger to the court of emperor Aśvasena. The messenger presented the whole story. The messenger made the emperor Aśvasena comprehend the strong feeling of love the princess had in her mind towards Pārśvakumāra. And prayed to him to protect the independence of *Kuśasthal* and religion of the princess Prabhā $V\bar{a}t\bar{t}$, in that moment of distress.

This unjust obstinacy of Muslim king excited emperor Aśvasena. He sent away the messenger giving him a promise to help emperor Prasenjit. He then gave orders to prepare for war. At once he was ready to march with well-prepared army and weapons. Emperor himself was about to start leading the vast army. When heir prince Pārśvakumāra arrived, he politely proposed, that, having a young son, emperor need not take this hardship. He said, 'Give me order. I am fully competent to destroy the enemy army. This is a proper occasion to prove my prowess. Please give this responsibility to me. Seeing his son's power and competence, Aśvasen happily gave him consent. Presently god Śakendra sent his charioteer with a chariot fully equipped with arms etc. in the service of Pārśvakumāra. The prince si ting in that chariot went towards Kuśasthalapur via sky route. (The chariot could fly). His army of four divisions (horses, elephants, chariots and infantry) followed him on the ground.

On departing from *Vārāṇasi*, Pārśvakumāra sent a message with a messenger to the Muslim king. The Muslim king in reply said, 'Oh messenger!' Tell your milky mouth Pārśvakumāra to remain away from this fiery battle, otherwise he will be killed onlimely'.

The messenger returned. Pārśvakumāra sent him again. Listening to the messenger's talk, a few courtiers were excited. But an old minister pacified them, saying, 'We have heard about the glory of Pārśvakumāra from other sources also. Devendra, the king of gods is in his service. To win over gods is not within our competence. We should not loose our army and prestige.'The Muslim king agreed with the proposal. The flying chariot given by the king of gods also impressed him much. He immediately discarded the thought of war. And went to Pārśva to serve him.

Emperor Prasenjit was already very much grateful. He, on behalf of the whole kingdom, thanking the prince greeted him. Also he very strongly requested the prince to marry his daughter Prabhā Vātī. Learning about strong love of princess, Pārśvanātha was put into a queer problem. He had come to protect Kuśasthal, and not for marriage. For this new task his father's consent was expected. The prince replied accordingly.

Emperor Prasenjit together with his daughter reached $V\bar{a}r\bar{a}nasi$. He strongly proffered to emperor Aśvasena. At that time celebrations were going on in the capital in view of glorious success of the prince. Though the prince who was mentally detached from the worldly attachments, did not want to marry. But he, obeying his father's order gave consent. And that brought a new attraction to the celebration. Wedding of prince Pārśvanātha and Princess Prabhā $V\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$ was performed with unprecedented enthusiasm. But Pārśvakumāra did not accept to become king.

1.1.3 An axe-blow on orthodox tradition

Once Pārśvakumāra was observing the city from the palace. He saw that big crowds of citizens were going in one particular direction. He found out from servant that a formidable ascetic by name of Kamatha had come to the park. He was burning 'pancāgni' (five fires). People were going to see him. Because of curiosity Pārśvakumāra also went there. The flames of fire were sky high. Big logs were burning. Pārśva saw with (his) 'avadhijñān' a couple of cobra snakes in the burning woods. He immediately asked the ascetic; 'Religion is in non-violence. Without non-violence how can it be religion? You are burning Five fires. In there, a male and a female cobra are being burnt'. Ascetic challenged him. Pārśva got the woods out of fire. A cobra couple came out writhing with fear. Pārśva recited the great 'Namskār-mantra' to them; and advised not to be angry with the ascetic. Both died at that instant. Then they were born as Indra and Indrani, the king and the queen of NāgKumār gods, by name Dharanendra and Padmāvatī. Prince Pārśva's this act of exposing of ignorant and illiterate penance was an axe-blow over the prevailing orthodox traditions. Pārśva illuminated the truth before the people, that, benefaction of soul can not be achieved by violence, ignorance, blind-faith, etc. People could understand the truth-dedicated religion by his revolutionary thoughts. As a result, the influence of that ascetic decreased. He was hated everywhere. He got angry and vowed for fast unto death. After death he became Megmāli god.

1.1.4 *Dikṣā* (renunciation) and Spiritual sadhana

Lord Pārśva prepared himself for renunciation after full completion of maturity of sufferable *Karma*. Gods from cosmos end came and appealed to him for benevolence of people. On 11th day of dark fortnight of the month of pauṣa, Lord Pārśva, after giving away 'varṣidāna' (a special charity), did 'pañcamuṣṭi loch' (a special ceremony of plucking all hairs at the time of renunciation), together with hundred individuals in the Āśramapada park in Vārāṇasi. He renounced the worldly pleasures totally in the presence of a huge gathering of men and gods. He did fast for three days. On the following day he came to Kopakatak society. There at the residence of fortunate Gāthāpati, he ended his fast (by beg ging food). Gods announced the importance of this charity.

Lord Pāršva now started moving about as 'vaideha'. He now got involved in spiritual sādhanā with determination. Travelling further on, he reached the city of Śivapurī. There, in a park he stood in meditation. After sometime he moved further to *Tapāświama* and there, under a banyan tree, he stood in meditation. After becoming Meghamāli god, Kamatha ascetic, with his special powers of 'vibhangajñāna' saw Lord Pāršva, there. Seeing Pāršva reminded him the enmity of previous birth. He reached there to give pain to Lord Pāršva. First he changed himself into the forms of lion, leopard tiger, snake, etc. and gave pain to Lord. But Lord remained motionless like a rock. Seeing his failure he became even angrier. He made ' $v kuvarn\bar{a}$ ', an atmosphere of rain. There were dark clouds in all four directions. It started raining heavily. In no time water level started rising fast. From knee deep water, the water levels raised up to waist and then up to chest and finally up to nose. Even then Lord Parśva stood firm. Then the throne of (god) Dharnendra got shaken. He saw with his special power of 'avadhijhāna' that Lord Pārśva was standing in deep water. He at once ran into the service of Lord. After bowing to him, he constructed a big lotus flower with a tube. He, himself became a cobra with seven expanded hoods, and thus made an umbrella over Lord. But Lord Pāršva was in equanimity. There was neither anger towards a scetic Kamatha, nor affection towards Dharnendra. The devil Kamatha still continued to make rain. Dharnendra, reproaching Kamatha said, 'Lord is fully involved in equanimity. And why are you down grading yourself in wretchedness?'

Kamatha was now fearful, because of Dhamendra's reproached. He wound up his delusion and begging pardon of Lord he went away. On removal of impediment, Dhamendra also, praising the Lord, returned.

Lord Pāršva, thus, spent 83 nights in this kind of determination and meditation. On 4th day of dark

fortright of the month of *Caitra*, the 84th day in *Āśramapada* park, under 'ghātakī' tree, doing meditation he got onto 'kṣapaka' course. Destroying all destructive karma, he secured 'kevalatva'.

1.1.5 Establishment of 'Cāturyām-dharma' (four-fold) religion

King of gods arranged for a great festival. Constructed a 'samavasaraṇa' (a special stadium). Thousands of people of Vārāṇasi came for daraśan of omniscient Lord Pārśvanātha. Lord gave the first sermon. In the first sermon itself 'tīrtha' was established. Many people accepted either 'āgāra' (with exception) or 'anagāra' (without exception) mode of religion.

Lord Pārśva prescribed four-fold (four great vows) religion for monks. He was the last to ordain this. After him, Lord Mahāvīra established 'five great vows' form of religion. So Pārśvanātha's religion became popular by the name of 'Cāturyām-dharma'. Out of 24 Tīrtharikara, the first and the last Tīrtharikara propagated the abstinence religion in the form of five great vows. The balance 22 Tīrtharikara are propagator of fourfold (four great vows) religion. 'Cāturyām' and 'Pancayām' are only different words. sādhara (discipline) is same in both. In 'Cāturyām' religion celibacy is not considered as a separate yām (great vow). But considered as a part of 'aparigrha', that is non-possession. Development of 'Cāturyām' only is five great vows religion.

Considering from historical point of view, it can be known that up to Lord Pāršvanātha's time, a woman was not considered as an important entity of the social life. She was part of wealth. Several examples are found in literature wherein a woman is included in wealth. The great poet Kālislāsa, in 'Raghuvanśa' has used the word 'saparigraha' for king Dilip to express that, 'because he was with wife'. In 'Kumārsambhava', it is told that Mahādeo remained 'aparigrahi' after death of his first wife Sati, till he married PārVātī.

In Jaina āgamās 'Sthānānga Sūtra', also it is written while defining 'aparigrha', –'meaning of 'bahiddha' is 'maithuṇ' meaning special possession.' The word 'parigrha' (possession) includes the meaning of 'maithun'; because a non-possessed woman can not be enjoyed'. In Jama āgama Uttarādhyana, there is an extensive description of this subject in the dialogue between Keŝī disciple of Pāršvanātha and Gautam, disciple of Mahāvīra.

1.1.6 Unrestricted reputation

Lord Pārśva's reputation and influence had spreaded deeply into far away countries Egypt, Iran, Siberia, Afaghanistan, etc. Kings and people of that era were worshiping religion of Pārśvanātha in a special form. The famous Chinese traveler Hyen Sang, when visited these countries, he saw there many 'nirgrantha' (Jain) monks. Uncle of Mahatma Buddha was a 'śramanopāsaka', a follower of Lord Pārśvanātha. In south also there were many followers of Lord Pārśva. There was a strong influence of system of 'sadhana' of Lord Pārśva, over all sects of different religions of that era. Many genius and majestic ācāryas like Āryā Śubhadutta, ĀryaHaridatta, ĀryaSamudrasuri, Ārya Keśī Śramana, lived during his reign.

1.1.7 'Nirvāg' - Final emancipation

Lord Pārsva guided millions of people, travelling through many countries. At last Lord came to *Sametšikhara*, after passing through the cities of *Vārāṇasi*, Amal*kalpa* etc. He, together with 33 monks, who were in their last birth, vowed for fast unto death. In the year 877 B.C. on the eighth day of bright fortnight of the month of *sāvana*, after fasting for one month and exterminating the four non-destroying 'karma', he attained 'nirvāṇ', the final emancipation.

2.1.0 Pārśvanātha: Historical background

After knowing the traditional biography of Lord Parśvanātha, now let us analyze the information available in the historical context. First of all let us consider the views of famous historian Dr. Jyotiprasad Jain. He in his

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book, 'Bhāratīya Itihās ek dṛasṭi', has presented a view based upon solid historical evidences. This is really worth examining. Here, we produce his view as it is: -

2.1.1 Pre-vedik period or Upanişadera

23rd Tirthańkara Pārśvanātha was the second great leader of revival uprising of 'Śramaṇa' religion. He was prince of Kāśī, and was born in Uraga family. It is the same dynasty in which the historical conqueror emperor Brahmadatta was born. According to Dr. Raicaudhary the state of Kāśī was the leading kingdom of Bhārata during that period. And according to Śatapath Brāhmaṇ the kings of Kāśī were opponents of vedik religion and yajña (sacrifice). Vāmādevī was the name of the mother of Tīrthańkara Pārśva, and his father Aśvasen was the king of Kāśī emperor. In ancient Buddha literature his reference is given by the name of 'Ashabh'. Also in Mahābhārata and other works there is a reference of a popular Nāg king of that time by the name of Aśvasen. Pārśva was born in the year 877 B.C. He was never married.

From early childhood he was detached from the worldly pleasures and had compassion for every soul. At the age of 30 he renounced the family and home and went into seclusion. As a result of vigorous penance for some period, he acquired 'kevaljñāna' (omniscient), and status of 'arhant'. Thereafter he nived his remaining life in travelling from country to country, and propagating the religion. In the end, at the age of 100 years in the year 777 B.C. at mount Sammedśikhar in the province of Bihar, he obtained 'nirvāṇ'. Till today this mountain is famous as mountain of Pārśvanātha. An ancient place by name of Ahicchatra in Bareli was his special place for penance. Special symbol of Pārśvanātha is cobra. It is said he had dark complexion. Therefore most of his deities are black in colour and with an umbrella shaped cobra-hood above his head. Now no scholar has any doubts about his historical existence. Even then some one still insist that Pārśva was founder of Jaina religion. Or at least his predecessors Tīrtharikara are beyond historical recognition; therefore nothing can be said about their existence.

Tīrtharikara Pārśva was born in the third leg of a period, which is known by many names such as 'Prevedic period', 'Upaniṣad yug', 'śraman- revival period', or 'Nāg-revival period', which is middle era (1400-600 B.C.) between, Mahābhārata and Mahāvīra and Buddha. Therefore he has an important position in cultural history of that era. He was born in the Uraga dynasty, which was a branch of Nāga tribe. Therefore his religious propagation was much more among the re-enlightened Nāg people. During his period several Nāg controlled government and republics had come into existence in east, west, north and south of Bhārata. And it seems their family deity was Pāršvanātha only. In addition, in central and eastern part of country many Vrātya Kṣatriya were also his followers. Among powerful Vajjigaṇa of Vaiśāli and Videha, which were divided into eight families of Licchavi and others; religion of Pāršva was their folk religion.

The main character of 'Karakańdu Carit', powerful king Karkańdu is also a historical personality. He was born in the thīrtha of Fārśva, and was his follower. He was an ideal king of that era. It is said that he renounced his kingdom and became a Jaina monk. He did penance and obtained emancipation. Archeological symbols obtained from caves of Terapur and other places certify the related Jaina records. In addition, Pāncāl king Durmukh or Dvimukh, Vidarbha king Bhim, and Gandhar king Nāgajīt or Nagatī were other kings of that time who were followers of Pārśva.

According to Dr. Karl Sharpainter main elements of basic principles of Jaina religion, seem to be orGaṇīzed during the time of Pārśvanātha, much earlier than Mahāvīra. According to Prof. Hamsworth, before the time of Gautama Buddha, Jaina confraternity founded by Pārśvanātha was known as Nirgrantha saṃgh. This was a formally established, well-orGaṇīzed sect. Prof. Ramprasad Chand states: 'It is generally believed that Jaina monks existed before Mahāvīra, and they were related to a saṃgha established by Pārśvanātha. They had their own 'caitya'. Dr. Vimalacharan Laha confirms this fact and adds, that it is believed that this religion of which Mahāvīra was the last preceptor was prevailing in some earlier form in Vaiśālī and

its surroundings. It is believed that at least several *Kṣatriya* of north and east *Bhārat* in which primarily were residents of *Vaiśālī* were followers of the religion, established and propagated by Pārśvanātha. It is found from 'Ācāraṇga Sūtra' etc., that the parents of Mahāvīra were devotees of Pārśva and followers of Śramaṇs. Like that Prof. JaiCandra Vidyālankāra also states that in Atharva Veda also there is a reference of 'Jin Vratyo' who were worshipers of 'Arhanton and 'caityon'. These 'Arahat' and their 'caitya' existed much before Buddha's time. Till now modern investigators have accepted historicity of only *Tīrthankara* Pārśva. Incidents and narration of other *Tīrthankara* are so much entangled in the verses of 'Purāṇa', that they have not been reconstructed till now. Even then there are definite evidences to establish that even before, Mahāvīra and Buddha, there were other religions totally different than Vedic religion, in *Bhāratvarṣa*.

Not only this, but evidences are available that recognition of Pāršva was also there in foreign countries. In 1885 A. D. Prof. Bill had said in his lecture before Royal Asiatic Society, that, even much before the propagation of Buddha religion by Sakyamuni Gautama, a similar religion was already prevailing in central Asia. According to Sir Henry Ralinson, Navyavihāra (kind of temple) and some of the archeological remains of some memorials made of bricks, in the city of Valkh in Central Asia suggest that 'Kasyapa' had been there. *'Kasyapa'* is name of a famous ancient Jaina monk, and also was family name of many ancient *Tirtharkara*, and also was family name of Pārśvanātha himself. According to 'Ādi-Purāŋ', the founder of Uraga dynasty in which Pāršvanātha was born, was a Kasyapa, whose other name was Maghara. Therefore Pāršva was of Kasyapa dynasty and possibly was also popular by his family name 'Kasyapa' Possibly on similar basis, city of Kiyāpiṣi in Central Asia was known as 'Kaispiya'. In the 7th century A.D. the famous Chinese traveler HU-en-sang, and even thousand years before that, Greek companions of Alexander had seen large number of 'Nirgraritha' monks in this city. Therefore it is quiet possible that Jaina religion was prevailing in the cities of Kasipiya, Aman, Samarkand, Valkh etc. of Central Asia. Father of Greek history Herodotus, during 6th and 5th century B. C. has mentioned in his book about an Indian religion in which all kinds of meat eating was prohibited; and its followers were only vegetarians. Greek philosopher Pythagorus born in 580 B. C. who was himself a contemporary of Mahāvīra and Buddha believed in reincarnation and transmigration of soul and also in principals of 'karma'. He used to preach against all kinds of violence to living beings and meat eating. to the extent that he believed some vegetables to be not eatable from religious point of view. He also claimed that he could tell about his previous births from memory. Thinkers of this sect of Asia Minor were called Ionian or Arafic philosophers. They believed the body to be perishable and fit to be abandoned as compared to soul. The said thoughts have no similarity with Buddha or Brāhmiṇa religion; while with Jaina religion a wonderful similarity exists. And because these beliefs prevailed at that time, as far as Greece and Asia Minor, when Mahāvīra and Buddha were just beginning to promote their own religions. Therefore it is to be believed that preaching of Pārśvanātha influenced Pythagorus and others.

There is a narration of Major General Furlang that nearly up to 1500 to 800 B. C. rather, even from earlier time, in north, west and central *Bhārata*, Turanios who, for convenience sake, are called Dravid had dominated. They worshiped tree, snake etc. But together with them, at the same time, in the whole of north *Bhārata*, there was one religion, which was very well or Gaṇīzed, very philosophical, and was based upon good conduct and penance; meaning Jaina religion existed. Only based upon this (Jaina religion), ascetic traditions of *Brāhmaṇa*, Buddha and other religions were developed. Before *Āryans* reached the banks of rivers *Gangā* and *Sarasvatī*, about 22 prophets or *Tīrtharikara* had given religious sermons to Jains In addition in 8th and 9th century B. C. 23th *Tīrtharikara* Pārśva came. He had knowledge of all his predecessor *Tīrtharikara* and also the knowledge of those pious ascetics, who lived much earlier in time. Also he had knowledge of those several religious books, which being ancient were known as '*Pūrva*' or *Purāṇa*'. And the knowledge that was flowing down through oral gateways of respected monks and ascetics who had retired in forests.

Some people called religion of Pārśvanātha as 'Cāturyām' religion. The reason is said to be that, the

vow of celibacy was not considered as one of the great vows as defined by him. Only non-violence, truth, non-stealing and non-possession were considered as great vows. Lord Mahāvīra added celibacy and increased the number of vows to five. Some modern scholars because of wrong thinking state that present *Śwetāmbara* sect is basically impressed by disciple tradition of Pārśva, while *Digambara* sect is impressed by that of Mahāvīra. But there is no doubt that the monks of disciple tradition of Pārśva existed till the time of Mahāvīra and Buddha. The occurrence of dialogue between Gautama and Kešī is an indication of fact that the monks of Pārśva tradition during the time of Mahāvīra had difference of opinion in some of the topics as stated by Mahāvīra. For that reason there was a discussion between their leader Kešī and principal disciple of Mahāvīra, Gautama Gaṇadhara. The differences were resolved as a result of the discussion. There is also a narration that the original founders of Buddha religion, Buddhakirti and his companions Sariputta, Moudgalayan etc., were earlier monks of Pārśva tradition. It is difficult to say if this Buddhakirti was himself Gautama Buddha or one of his Jaina teachers.

2.1.2 Historicity of Pārśva: From scholars 'point of view

Dr. Herman Jacobi proved Lord Pārśvanātha as an historical personality. Then many other scholars also confirmed this fact. Opinion of Dr. Basham is, 'As Mahāvīra is referred to, in the Buddhist scriptures, as one of the Buddha's chief opponents, his historicity is beyond doubt. (And) Lord Pārśva was remembered as 23rd of the 24 great teachers or *Tīrtharikarās* 'ford-makers' of the Jaina faith.'

According to Dr. Vimalacaran Law, religion of Lord Pārśva was prevailing among *Kṣatriyas* of north Bharat. *Vaiśālī* was its principal center. Chief king of *Vaijjigana*, Ceṭaka was a follower of Lord Pārśva. Parents of Mahāvīra were also following Lord Pārśva's religion. Religion of Lord Pārśva had also spread in *Kapilvastu*. There in Nygrodharama, a discussion had taken place between Sākya Nirgmitha Śrāvak 'Vappa' and Buddha. Principles of Jaina religion were already stabilized before Lord Mahāvīra.

Dr. Karl Charpentier has written, 'We ought also to remember both, that the Jaina religion is older than Mahāvīra, his reputed predecessor Pārśva having almost certainly existed as a real person, and that, consequently, the main points of the original doctrine may have been codified long before Mahāvīra.'

In the same manner famous scholar Radhakamal Mukherjee writes, 'Pārśva, who was probably a historical figure, a son of king of *Banāras*, practiced and preached a religion of four vows, that greatly resembled the faith of Mahāvīra.' From the above quotation, it is clear that historians have agree the existence of Vardhamāna and his predecessor Pārśvanātha among the 24 *Tīrthaṅkarās* of Jainas.

It is shown in Harmsworth History of the world, citing, Pārśva as a predecessor of Gautama Buddha and Vardhamāna Mahāvīra. 'They, the Jains believe in great number of prophets of their faith anterior of nātaputta (Mahāvīra Vardhamāna) and pay special reverence to the last of these, Pārśva or Pārśwa Nātha. Herein they are correct, in so far as the latter personality is more than mythical. He was indeed the royal founder of Jainism (776 B. C.) while his successor Mahāvīra was younger by many generations and can be considered only as a reformer. As early as time of Gotama, the religious confraternity founded by Pārśva and known as the Ningraritha, was a formally established sect, and according to Buddhist chronicles, threw numerous difficulties in the way of the rising Buddhism.'

Or proving historicity of personality of Lord Pārśva, a question arises, 'was Pārśva founder of Jainism?' In reply to this Dr. Herman Jacobi has written. 'But there is nothing to prove that Parshwa was the founder of Jainism. Jaina tradition is unanimous in making Rṣabha, the first *Tīrtharkara* as its founder. There must be something historical in the tradition which makes him the first *Tīrtharkara*.'

2.1.3 Historicity of Cāturyām (four vow) religion of Tīrthańkara Pārśva

The 23rd Tīrthankara Lord Pārśva is a historical person. His tīrtha foundation was established 250 years

before Lord Mahāvīra. His tradition lasted uninterrupted till the time of Mahāvīra. Parents of Lord Mahāvīra were followers of Lord Pārśvanātha. The credit of spreading of philosophy and system of sādhanā of non-violence and truth throughout the society goes to Lord Pārśva. Lord Pārśva became very popular because of upgrading of tradition of non-violence. This information we obtain from the adjective 'purisādānīya'. Lord Mahāvīra respectfully used this adjective for Lord Pārśva. There are some references found in Bhagavatī Sūtra, stating that tradition of Lord Pārśva existed during the time of Lord Mahāvīra. Lord Mahāvīra stated that the belief of the followers of Pārśva was correct.

Dharmanda Kauśāmbi has produced some beliefs about Lord Pārśva:

'Period of Parikshit's rule can not be more than three centuries earlier than Buddha. After Parikṣita, Janamejay came to throne and he waved the flag of Vedic religion in the province Kuru. At that time, Pārśva was laying the foundation of a new culture, in the province of Kāśī. Pārśva was born to queen Vāmā of king Aśvasen in the city of Vārāṇasi. Such story is available in Jaina books. This new culture of Pārśva should have been well established, because Buddha also had to go to Vārāṇasi in search of new dixiples.

Pārśva's religion was simple and straightforward. He preached to abstain from the following four things: violence, untruth (falsehood), stealing, and possession. In such ancient time, this is the first example of giving such well-orGaṇīzed conformation to non-violence.

The Ten Commandments given to Moses by God included 'not to ke'll'. But after listening to these commandments, Moses and his followers rushed into Palestine, and flowed rivers of blood. It is not known how many people were killed, and how many young women were caught and distributed among them. If these things are called non-violence then what can be called violence? The moral is, that before Pārśva there was no religion or philosophy of true non-violence, in the world.

Lord Pārśva did one more thing. He bound non-violence with three other principles; principle of truth, non-stealing and non-possession. Because of that, non-violence which was limited to be practiced by ascetics only; and for which there was no place in people's behavior, now became a social and customary behavioral.

Lord Pārśva orGaṇīzed a confraternity to propagate his new religion. From Buddhist literature it is known that out of several confraternity that existed in the time of Buddha, the confraternity of Jaina monks and nuns was the largest.

Before Pārśva, there existed big groups of *Brāhmans*. But they were only for propagating and performing *yajĥa-yaga* etc. There was also a confraternity of those who hated *yajĥa-yaga*, and went away to forests for doing penance. They used to practice non-violence, as a part of penance. But they did not preach that to society. They rarely met people.

Before Buddha there were *Brāhamaṇs* who believed in yajña-yaga, and later there were ascetics who went away to forest because of aversion to *Yajña-yaga*. It is not that such *Brāhamaṇs* and ascetics were not there during Buddha's time. But there was also a third type of ascetics who could see faults in the former two types. And among them the disciples of Lord Pārśva should be given first place.

According to Jaina tradition the first *Tirthankara* to propagate 'cāturyām' (four vows) religion was Lord Aji anātha, and the last was Lord Pārśva. From second Thirthankara to 23 to Tirthankara the preaching of 'cāturyām' religion continued. Only Lord R ṣabha and Lord Mahāvīra propagated religion of five great vows. Confraternities of niragranth Śramans existed from Lord R ṣabha onwards. But they are beyond the scope of present history. According to historical point of view, the conception of confraternity of Kauśāmbiji is correct.

OUESTIONNAIRE

- 1. Essay: - Describe in detail historicity of Lord Pārśva.
- 2. Reply in Short.
 - a) How did Pārśvakumāra save the cobra- couple?
 - b) What is the meaning of 'cāturyām religion'? Explain.
- 3. Objective questions.
 - Nersity Ladrum Period of Pārśvanātha was before Mahāvīra. 1) a) about 300 years b) about 250 years c) about 200 years d) about 250 years
 - Pārśva's mother's name was. 2) a) Vāmādevi b) Triśalā c) Bhagavatī devi d) none of this
 - Prabhā Vātī's father's name was. a) Ajātšatru b) Bimbasār c) Prasenjit d) Candragupta
 - The name of the ascetic burning five fires was, 4)
 - a) Indra b)Yaksa c)Singharatha d)Kamatha
 - 'Lord is fully engrossed in equanimity, and you are down grading yourself in wretchedness'. This 5) was said by:
 - a) Kamatha, b) Dharnendra c) Meghamālī d) none of this
 - 'Cāturyām' religion was propagated by: 6)
 - a) Ŗṣabhadeo b) Mahāvīra c) Pārśvanātha d) none of this
 - Keśī was disciple of. 7)
 - a) Pārśvanātha b) Mahāvīra c) Ŗṣabhadeo d) none of this
 - Pārśvanātha obtained 'nirvān' (salvation) at, 8)
 - a) Vārānasi b) Sāranātha c) Sammedsikhara d) none of this
 - Pārśva was from _____dynasty.
 - a) Nāga b) Uraga c) Nanda d) none of this
 - 10) Which western scholar has proved Lord Pārśvanātha as an historical person?
 - a) Dr. Jelar b) Dr. Herman Jecobi c) Dr. Gomparj d) none of this

LESSON 2 (B)

LORD MAHĀVĪRA

1.1 Bhārata of the time of Lord Mahāvīra: Frontiers of kingdoms

2500 years ago most of *Bhārata* was divided into several small kingdoms. In east, two types of systems were prevailing. *Ariga, Magadha, Vātsa, etc. were ruled by kings. Kāśī, Kauśal, Videha*, etc. were established as republics. There were two famous republics, viz. Republic of *Licchavis* and republic of *Mallās*. Republic is next step to sovereignty and is earlier stage of democracy. *Licchavis* established republic to orGanīze power of state. The main credit of establishing the Republic state goes to king Ceṭaka, the sovereign of *Videha*. In it, there was representation of 18 states, nine *Licchavis* and nine *Mallās*. Amongst them *Videha* was the largest. Its capital was *Vaiśalī*. *Vaiśālī* was not only capital of *Licchavis*, but also was capital of whole federation of Vajji.

There was full freedom of religion in the republic of Vajji. Cetaka was follower of Arahat Pārśva. Cetaka's father's name was Kek, mother's name was Yaśomatī, and wife's name was Pṛthā. There was a society by name of Kundapur near Vaiśālī. Brāhmaṇ were staying in its southern part, and so it was called Brāhmaṇa Kundapur. Kṣatriyas were staying in its northern part, and therefore it was called Kṣatriya Kundpur. Leader of Brāhmaṇa was Brāhmaṇa Rṣabhadatta; and leader of Kṣatriya Kundpur was Kṣatriya Siddhārtha. Both were followers of Lord Pārśvanātha. King Kek had wedded his daughter Triśalā to Siddhārtha. Because of this wedlock, the relation of Vaiśālī and Kṣatriya Kundpur became very intimate.

1.2 Religious and social frontiers

There were two independent schools of religions prevailing in *Bhārata* at that time, viz. *Śramaṇa* and *Vaidika*. There were several confraterrities of *Śramaṇa*'s. Their very wise *Ācāryās* were called *Tīrthaṅkara*. Also there were several sects of *Vaidika* tradition. *Vaidika Ṣṣis* (monks) were theist. *Ṣṣis* (monks) of *Upaniṣad* sect were '*Brāhmavādī*'. Among *Śramaṇs* also there were a few *Ācāryās*, who were theist. But most of them were '*Ātmavādī*' and '*Nirvāṇvādī*'.

A few Ācāryās were trying to realize the truth through meditation, penance and such other means of sādhanā. It was essential to be 'vitarāga' (void of rāga-dveṣa i.e. attachment and aversion) in the traditional flow of 'Adhyātmavād' (sputtuality). But practitioners of 'śakti' (power) and 'mantra' did not consider 'vītarāgatā' (to be void of rāga-dveṣa) as essential. They considered violence to satisfy gods as ordained. They performed several undertakings such as sacrifice of animals, 'yajha-yaga' for going to heaven, purification by bathing, burning 'Pancāngni' (five types of) fire, etc. Some ascetics would lie over a bed made with sharp nails. Ugra, Bhoja. Rājanya, Kṣatriya, jhāt, Kaurava, and Draviḍa were the tribes which followed Śramaṇa religion. While brāhmaṇa tribe followed Vaidika religion.

During rinth century B.C.23rd *Tīrtharikara* Pārśvanātha of Jaina religion made campaign of non-violence very forceful. By this the people of *Videha*, *Siridhu-sauvīra*, *Ariga*, *Kuru*, *Pancāla*, *Kāšī-Kauśal*, etc. were especially well impressed. The campaign of non-violence based upon community *sādhanā* made Pārśvanātha extraordinary popular. He became ubiquitous rising above the limitations of *śramaṇa* tradition. He attained 'nirvān' in the year 777 B.C.

It was not yet two hundred years passed by, after the attainment of 'nirvān' by Pārśvanātha, the efficacy and the power of the campaign of non-violence had diminished. Violence, hatred, enmity, animal sacrifice,

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downfall of women status, slavery and subjugation of unequal, brought total darkness in the society. People were eagerly waiting for a new sun to rise.

1.3 Transmigration of Mahāvīra's fetus

Mahāvīra, after dying in his previous birth, at *Puśpāntara* heaven of *Prāṇatkalpa*, took birth in the womb of Devā*Nanda* brāhmiṇī in the house of *brāhmiṇa* Rṣabhadatta of Kodal dynesty in *Brāhmaṇkundgrāma*. At that time *brāhmiṇī* saw 14 dreams of elephant, bull, etc. After 82 days *Indra*, king of Saudharma heaven called Harinaigameṣī, and said, '*Tīrthaṅkara*, *Cakravartī*, Baladev, and Vāsudev do not take birth in lower caste families. These superior persons take birth in *Ugra*, *Bhoja*, *Kṣatriya*, *Ikṣvāku*, *jñāt*, *Kaurava*, *Harivaṅsha*, etc. superior caste families. Mahāvīra because of his past *karma* is now in *Brāhmaṇa* family. You go there and transfer (Mahāvīra) foetus into the womb of Triśalā, wife of Kṣatriya Siddhārtha of *Kṣtiryakundgrāma*. Immediately that god went there. That was the 13th day of dark fortnight of the month of *āświna*. At the end of second part of the night, during the period of *Utarāfalguṇī*, he transferred the fetus to the womb of Triśalā.

Dreams viewing by mother Triśalā

Tranquil atmosphere. Later part of the night. Huge palace of king Siddhārtha. Soft comfortable bed. Queen Triśalā saw a dream sequence of 14 dreams. As she was half-asleep, she saw an obtrusive huge elephant with four tusks, a bull, a lion, sun, moon, and etc. fourteen important dreams. There are two beliefs about this dream sequence.

Digambara beliefŚwetambara beliefElephant, bull, lion,Elephant, bull, lion,Goddess LaxmiGoddess Śrī (Laxmi)

Mālyadvika (a pair of rosary)Dām (a rosary)Moon, sun, a pair of pots,Moon, sun, pot,

A couple, ocean, lake, throne, Flag, ocean, lake of lotus,

Airplane of god, airplane of cobra, Airplane

Jewels, fire without smoke, Box of jewels, fire.

Triśalā woke up. She was wondering about seeing extraordinary dreams. She went to king Siddhārtha, and told him about her dreams. Siddhārtha was extremely happy. Dream readers were invited. They said, 'Oh king! Queen will have a son. These dreams indicate that he will be a great prophet.' King gave them reward and let them go.

Wonderful resolution

What happens in every body's life is easily understood. But what happens in the life of a few individuals is beyond understanding. This we accept as super-natural, or we do not accept it at all. But certain things do happen, whether accepted or not accepted. This is a happening in Mahāvīra's life when he was in womb. He had very clear knowledge. One day, after six months had passed, he suddenly stopped all his movements. Triśalā got a doubt in her mind, whether the embryo was live or not? Why has he stopped movements? This anxiety disturbed her. King Siddhārtha was informed about this news. He was also worried. As the news spread, anguish also spread. All the festivities were stopped. The whole royal family was full of sorrow. It seemed that, for a few seconds the sun stopped rising.

Mahāvīra saw the outside happenings. He was flabbergasted. He thought, 'Some times it is bad to do good.

I have stopped moving for my mother's happiness. But it has created unhappiness. Nature does not accept something unnatural,' Mahāvīra started his movements again. Mother's doubt was removed. The whole family was freed from the fever of anguish. The sky was full of sweet sound of music. Mahāvīra got over-whelmed by parental love. He resolved that, 'I will not renounce during the life time of my parents.' His worldly love for his parents became supernatural.

Birth, name, and family

A child was born on the 13th day of bright fortnight of the month of caitra at mid-night in a very happy atmosphere. This happened during the year 542 before Vikrama and 599 B.C. 74 years, 11 months and seven and a half days were Balance for completion of fourth era named 'duṣam-suṣamā' of 'avasarapiṇi' time cycle. That time it was constellation of 'hastottar' (utarāfalguṇī) in the sky. At this pious moment maid Priyamvadā gave the news of birth of a son, to Siddhārtha. Overwhelmed with happiness, Siddhārtha gave good gift to Priyamvadā, and freed her from maid-services for ever. This was the first contribution of the child towards eradication of slavery.

Royal officials announced the news of the birth of a son in the whole city. Celebration was orGaṇīsed for the occasion. On the 12th day, parents told to guests and relatives, 'from the day child came into the womb, there has been continuous increase in wealth, bullion, jewels, cash animals, strength, vehicles, etc. in our state. Therefore we wish to name this child 'Vardhamāna'. People present there, accepted the suggestion happily. And so the child was named Vardhamāna.

He had innate knowledge; therefore he was called 'saman'.

He was born in the family of 'Jñāt' (Nāga) Kṣatriya, so he was also named 'Nāgaputra.

During long period of *sādhanā* he endured several ordeas with bravery and was not unsettled from achieving his goal. So he was named Mahāvīra.

Siddhārtha was a kṣatriya of Kaśyapa dynasty, Therefore he was called 'Kaśyapagotriya'

Lord Mahāvīra's father was addressed by three names. 1.Siddhārtha. 2. Šreyāns. 3.Yaśaswī.

His mother was from Vaśiṣṭha dynasty. She had three names. 1.Triśalā. 2.Videhadattā. 3.Priyakārinī.

His uncle's name was Supāršva. Elder brother was Nandivardhan. And the elder sister was named Sudaršan.

His wife's name was Yaśodā. She was from Kaudinya dynasty,

His daughter had two names. Anavadhyā and Priyadaršanā.

His grand daughter (daughter's daughter) had two names. ŚeṣVātī and Yaśaswatī. She was from *Kauśika* dynasty.

Wonderful child

Devī Triśalā accomplished her complete responsibility of child bearing in happy mood, with Bālanced diet, and free from mental tensions. As a result she gave birth to a beautiful, bonny, and enlightened child, complete in all qualities. Born in the mundane world, the supernatural character of the child was emitting in several forms.

Child Vardhamāna 's beauty was wonderful. His breathing gave out fragrance of lotus. It was predicted that he would become a prophet. There was no perspiration, nor any dirt was found on the body of this child. His body was totally free from diseases. Blood and meat of the child were white, like cow's milk. According to physiology the blood contains both red and white cells. This child would have blood-cells of both kinds, but his blood and meat would be shiring white like cow's milk.

1.8 Childhood games

Mahāvīra was now eight years old. Even at this age, he was steady, polite, generous, and adventurous. Once *līndra*, king of gods, praising Mahāvīra said in his assembly, 'even though Mahāvīra is a child, his valor is that of an adult. No god, devil or even *līndra* can frighten him.' One of the gods did not believe what *līndra* said. He came to Mahāvīra. At that time Mahāvīra was playing a game with children in *Pramadvan* (a garden). In this game who ever climbs a tree and comes down first, is the winner. The defeated children carry the winner on their shoulders.

The god who came to test Mahāvīra created a fearful snake to frighten Mahāvīra. The snake climbed the tree. Mahāvīra saw the snake, and vigilantly with his left hand threw it away seven stories high. The god thought, 'I could not cheat him.' Mahāvīra was playing with a ball. The god took the form of a child and started playing with Mahāvīra. Mahāvīra defeated him, and climbed upon his shoulders. To frighten. Mahāvīra, god made a form of a horrible palm tree, which went on growing. Mahāvīra saw that and without getting frightened, he struck it with his heel. That devil tree fell down on the earth. Now the god was frightened. He thought, 'I am not capable of cheating him. He bowed to Mahāvīra, and went away. This story of fearlessness and adventure became popular everywhere.

Student life

Mahāvīra, after completing eight years entered the ninth year. Parents sent him to a Lekhācārya (a teacher). A special big chair was made for the teacher. This caused the throne of *Indra* shaking. He immediately came there. *Indra* made Mahāvīra sit on the teacher's chair. Teacher was also sitting there. *Indra* very politely asked, 'How many variations are there of the alphabet? And how many divisions are there? And how many similar modes are there?'

Mahāvīra explained all these in many ways. Lekhācārya listened to this. He learned many new verses and their meanings. From these questions a new grammar named 'Aindra evolved. Lekhācārya and all others were very much surprised. Indra said, ' Mahāvīra knows everything. He has knowledge of previous births. He is master of three 'jhāna' (mati, śruti, and anadhi). Hearing this from Indra, everyone was satisfied. Mahāvīra completed his study period.

Freedom from worldly bonds and renunciation

Parents of Mahāvīra practiced the religion prescribed for layman, for many years. And at the end, abandoned the body, by fasting unto death. They took new birth as gods in 'Acyuta Kalpa' (heaven). At that time Mahāvīra was 28 years old.

While he was in womb, Lord Mahāvīra had made a resolution. 'I will not renounce during the life-time of my parents'. After the death of his parents, his resolution was completed. Mahāvīra, then told Nandivardhan, Supārśva and other relatives,' Now, I want to renounce.' Hearing about renouncement their grief became double. They said, 'Oh, dear brother! What are you saying? Would we be bereft all at once? Here we suffer the grief of the death of parents, and there the talk about your renouncement. This is like putting salt on wound. You stay with us, till we are free from mourning. Our royal mourning will be over after two years.'

Mahāvīra accepted (the proposal). 'I can stay at home, but with the following condition, I will take food and do all my activities in my own way.' They agreed to Mahāvīra's condition. Mahāvīra, himself took a decision to postpone his time to leave home. And stayed in the family life for more than two years. During this period, he did not use live water. He gave up disapproved and non-recommended food. He practiced celibacy, and gave up all incontinent activities.

Two years were spent. Feet of freedom fighter went ahead in search of root-cause of bondage. Mahāvīra

performed the act of leaving home and went to *Gyātakhariḍ* park out side *Kṣtriyapur*. Thousands of people of *Vaiśālī* had gathered there. This was 10th day of dark fortnight of the month of *mṛgṣara*. Before taking renunciation vows, he plucked his right-side hair with his right hand, and left-side hairs with his left hand. He bowed to *'Siddha'* (the free enlightened souls). Then with this resolution,' All sinful activities are not to be done by me'; he accepted *'sāmāyik-cāritra'* (the right conduct life of a monk).

Śramaṇa Lord Mahāvīra then made a resolution- 'For 12 years, I abandon my corpus; I forsake my body. I will not look after the body. During this period, I will endure in right spirit, with patience, without anguish, and with courage, keeping control over mind speech and body, overcoming all the impediments created by gods humans and animals. At the time of renunciation Lord Mahāvīra had only one piece of cloth on his shoulder. He resolved, 'During winter I will not cover body with this cloth.' He had decided to suffer the pain of cold for lifetime. For 13 months he did not leave that cloth, but thereafter, the recluse and ascetic Mahāvīra gave away the cloth and became clothless.

Sādhanā (endeavor to achieve salvation) and achievement

After taking permission from all relatives, Mahāvīra became a monk. He walked away from *Gyātkharida* Park and reached *Karmārgrāma*, when only last quarter of the day was left. Mahāvīra's body was full of fragrance of several perfumes. At the time of leaving home, *Indras* (kings of gods) had made his body perfumed by sandalwood and such other scents. Even after more than four months of remunciation the fragrance of the body was still powerful. Attracted by this heavenly fragrance, many wasps leaving lotus pool came to Mahāvīra. They hovered over him and were humming on his back. Not getting the nectar, they got annoyed and started biting him. Ants also were biting him.

Mahāvīra and cow-herd

First year of *sādhanā*. Mahāvīra was standing steady like a statue, outside the town of *Karmārgrāma*. There came a cowherd of that town in a nearby field, driving his bulls. Bulls started grazing. The cowherd went to barn to milk the cows. Bulls while grazing moved away towards forest. The cowherd not seeing his bulls asked Mahāvīra, 'where are my bulls?' Mahāvīra kept mum. The cowherd started searching the bulls. The bulls being satisfied, returned, and were runnating, sitting nearby Mahāvīra. When the cowherd returned, seeing the bulls there, he became very angry and thought. 'he must have stolen my bulls', thinking like that, he ran towards Mahāvīra with a whip.

'What is Mahāvīra doing on the first day of renunciation?' to know this *Iridra* the king of gods concentrated and saw the cowherd. *Iridra* made the cowherd into a statue. *Iridra* came near to Mahāvīra and said,' Lord! There can be many obstacles during the period of your *sādhanā*. Please give me permission. I will be at your service.' Mahāvīra replied to this proposal of *Iridra*.' *Śakra*! This has never happened, can not happen and will never happen. *Aranants* had never acquired 'kevaljñāna' with the help of *Devendra* (king of gods) or Asureridra (king of demons), do not acquire, and will never acquire. They, only with their own efforts, karma, strength, vigor, virinty, and enterprise acquire 'kevaljñān'. They do their penance, and do their independent activities.'

Next day, Mahāvīra walked out from *Karmārgrāma*, and came to *Kollāka* society. There he broke his fast, with rice mixed with sugar and ghee, at the residence of Bahul *Brāhmaṇa*. Five divine appeared.

Lord Mahāvīra was progressing ceaselessly on his path of *sādhanā*. His spiritual power was getting stronger and his valor was fully ignited. His path was full of favorable and unfavorable obstructions. Sensual youths were fascinated by the body fragrance of Mahāvīra. They were demanding recipe of the scent. Mahāvīra kept silence. Then they created unfavorable obstructions. Lord Mahāvīra's body was well built, good looking and handsome. Seeing his wealth of beauty, many ladies would make passionate gestures. But all this did not

have any effect over Lord Mahāvīra. A ball of mud will shine brighter in fire, but will not melt. Similarly Lord Mahāvīra was attenuating the sexual passion by his *sādhanā* of superior meditation.

Lord Mahāvīra did not have any residence of his own. He was aniketan (Chomelers wounderer). Most of the time his stay was in abondoned house, temple, park or forest. Some times he stayed in cemetery also. From Kollāka society he went to Morāka society. There was an āśhram for recluse. The head of the āśhram was a friend of Mahāvīra's father. On his request, Mahāvīra stayed there in a hut for the monsoon stay. But based upon complaints from other recluse, the head very softly told Mahāvīra, 'Oh prince! Even birds take care of their nests. You are not taking care of your hut.' Thinking, 'This is an unsuitable place.' Mahāvīra went away from there. From that day, Mahāvīra made five resolutions.'1. I will not stay in an unsuitable place. 2. I will not take care of my body. 3. I will keep silence. 4. I will take my food in my hands. 5. I will not bow down to, and will not consider superior to a layman.

Dhyānyogī(meditative) Mahāvīra

Lord Mahāvīra was a unique combination of fasts and meditation. None of his fasts was without special process of meditation. He spent most of his time in meditation. Once for 16 days and night, he continuously meditated.

Eleventh year of sādhanā. In town named Sānulaṣṭi. There he experimented with 'bhadrapratimā'. He stood in 'kayotsarga' posture facing east. For 12 hours he stood in meditation. Like that he meditated for 12 hours in each direction. In this posture Lord Mahāvīra experienced much happiness. He then started 'mahābhadrapratimā' in the same series. Therein Lord Mahāvīra meditatede for 24 hours in each of the four directions. Now this series of meditation became so powerful that he could not break it. He then went further into the same series of meditation and stood in 'Sarvatobhadrapratimā. Therein he meditated for 24 hours facing all 4 directions, also all Four Corners, also facing up down; in total in all 10 directions. He continuously did meditation in 'dhyānapratimā' posture for totally 16 days and nights. During meditation he would aim upward, downward, and in oblique direction. To perceive objects of upper 'loka' he would meditate facing upward. To perceive objects of lower 'loka' he would meditate facing downward. And to perceive the objects of oblique 'loka' he would meditate facing horizontally. He would change the subjects (of meditation). His main subjects were:

Karma going upwards, downwards, and in horizontal direction

Bondage, reasons for bondage and results of bondage

Emancipation, reasons for emancipation and happiness of emancipation

Head, belly-button, and wes

Dravya (matter), qualities, and modes

Permanent and transient

Gross – the whole world

Subtle – the atom

To observe soul by 'prajñā' (inner consciousness)

Lord Mahāvīra in the middle of meditation would study and recite verses of loneliness, transitoryness, refugelessness and such other perceptions.

He did not sleep much. He would keep his soul awaken most of the time. After long awakening he would sleep momentarily. Mostly he would meditate in standing posture. Sometimes he would walk a little. By doing this he had victory over sleep. For meditation he would use the following postures: *Padmāsana*, *Paryankāsana*, *Virāsana*, *Godohikā*, and *Utkaṭikā*. In summer he would bear the heat of the sun. He would sit in *Ukadu* posture facing hot winds. During winter he performed meditation in shelter.

He used to concentrate his mind on a horizontal wall and meditate without blinking his eyes for hours together. Iris of long time unblinked eyes would shift upwards. Seeing this, group of frightened children would shout and call other children. By this 'trāṭaka sādhanā' (concentrating and keeping eyes open, steady, and without blinking), not only his mind became steady, but also his eyes became very bright. He had resolved to keep almost silent. He used to only speak for begging food and obtaining permission place of staying. Whenever somebody asked him, he would reply briefly. All the remaing time he would keep away from manifestation and contact.

Meditation is a tool for realization of one's own soul. Control over food and sleep, and disciplines of postures are instruments of meditation. Ācārya Kuńdakuńda has written, 'One who does not understand victory over food, victory over sleep, and victory over *āsana* (postures), does not understand Mahāvīra.

Demon Śulapāņi and 10 dreams of Mahāvīra

It was the first year of Mahāvīra's *sādhanā*. After staying for 15 days at *Morāka* society, Mahāvīra went to Asthi town. There,in an haunted house, demon Śulapāṇi was staying. Whoever would stay there for a night, he (Śulapāṇi) would first haress him, and then kill him. Therefore any traveler, coming there would stay there during the day but would go away somewhere else by the evening. Lord Mahāvīra wondering from one town to another reached there. He asked for permission to stay there in that haunted house. People said, 'you cannot stay there. You better stay in the town. 'Mahāvīra did not accept that, because he knew that by his staying there, the demon would gain knowledge. Hence obtaining permission to stay in the haunted house, Mahāvīra went inside and stood in a posture for meditation in a corner.

In the evening the demon came there making horrible horse-laugh, and started frightening Mahāvīra. When Mahāvīra was not frightened by the horselaugh, he made a form of elephant and started annoying. When he was still not frightened, then he made a form of de ni. When, even after doing all these he could not disturb Mahāvīra, then, at early morning, he created seven types of pains in—head, ears, eyes, teeth, nails and back. For any ordinary man each of the pain was fatal. But Lord Mahāvīra endured all that. At last finding himself incapable of instigating or influencing Lord Mahāvīra, he surrendered and bowed down at his feet and said, 'oh reverend! Please forgive me'.

Thus for several hours, Lord Mahāvīra was massively tormented by Šulapāṇi. As a result, in the morning Lord Mahāvīra went to sleep. During sleep Mahāvīra saw 10 dreams, and then woke up. Utpal a dream interpreter, bowed down to Mahāvīra, and said, 'Master, you have seen 10 dreams in the last part of the night. Their significance is as follows.:

Pond demon – you saw a pond demon being defeated. It means that, you will, very soon destroy mohanīya (deluding) karma:

White male cucke o bird - you saw a male cuckoo bird with white wings. It means that you will achieve 'śukla dhyāna'.

Pied male cuckoo bird – you saw a male cuckoo bird with pied wings. It means that you will pronounce 'dvādašāngī' (12 jain canons).

 $D\bar{c}mdvika$ - Utapal said, you saw two rosaries, but I do not know to interpret that. Mahāvīra said, 'what you do not know is as follows: I will pronounce two types of religions. $\bar{A}g\bar{a}ra$, (with exception) and $anag\bar{a}r$ (without exception).

Herds of cows - you saw herds of white cows. It means that, you will have '*śramana*' confraternity of four catagories.

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Lotus Lake - you saw a vast lake full of lotus flowers all over. It means that four types of gods will be present in your assembly.

Ocean – you saw yourself swimming across the ocean with your hands. It means that, you will cross over this mortal world.

Sun – you saw a very bright sun. It means that you will very soon achieve 'keval jñāna' (total knowledge).

Intenstine - you saw 'Mānuṣottara' mountain surrounded by your intenstine. It means that your glory, fame and dignity will spread all over the three worlds.

Mandārgirī ț- you saw yourself riding over '*Mandārachala*'. It means that you will give sermon of religion enthroned, in an assembly of gods, humans and demons.

Mahāvīra and Caņdakausika snake

Second year of sādhanā. Lord Mahāvīra were to North Vāchala via interior road of Kankakhala āśhrampada. Some cowherds who were staying there told him, 'sir! A little ahead, there is danger of Candakausika snake. A person gets totally burnt just by his stare. Therefore you take the outer road. Mahāvīra did not accept this advice, he knew that, this snake deserved transformation. The snake would achieve enlightenment. Mahāvīra went inside and stood there in meditation. Caṇdaknusika snake after round the āshram, came there. He saw Mahāvīra in 'kāyotsarga' posture. He became angry. He first gazed at the sun, then looked at Mahāvīra. Just his stare would burn other people. But Mahāvīra did not get burnt. The snake looked at Mahāvīra two three times with his poisonous eyes, but there was no effect on Mahāvīra. Then he bitte Mahāvīra thrice. But Mahāvīra was totally uninfluenced. Due to this failure he started staring at Mahāvīra with eyes filled with anger. While staring, the spledour serenity of Mahāvīra overfloed on snake's eyes. The poison of his eyes got washed away. Mahāvīra said Candakaysika! Calm down. Calm down. 'Hearing these words, the snake started contemplation. He remembered his previous life. He bowed down to Mahāvīra and resolved for fast unto death. He sat down putting his mouth in his burrow. Shepherds threw stones at him, but he did not even stir. Hearing about his getting pacified, people came there, to bowed to Mahāvīra. They bowed to the snake and then celebrated. The female cowherd applied ghee on snake's body. Attracted by fragrance of ghee, ants attacked his body, and started biting. He endured this agony with equanimity. After 15 days, he died completing his fast unto death, and was reborn in Sahaśrāra Kalpa (8th heaven).

Obstacles created by Katputanā: Exceptional Avadhijījān

Sixth year of sādhanā. Mahāvīra went to the town called Śāliśirṣa. He stood in meditation in a posture of statue in a park. It was the month of māgha. There came a demoness by the name of Kaṭpuṭanā. She could not bear the brightness of Mahāvīra. She turned herself into a form of 'tāpas' (penancer), who had put on 'valkala' (a dress made of tree bark). She started sprinkling water from her unkempt hair on Mahāvīra's body. She stood on his body and shivered his limbs. She blew very strong wind. An ordinary person would have been unsettled. In Mahāvīra's earlier birth of a 'Tripṛṣṭha Vāsudeo', she was one of his queens. That time not getting proper treatment, she was full of malice towards him.

Manavīra was just enduring the anguish created by Kaṭputanā While doing so, his 'avadhijñāna' developed fully. Now he could see the whole universe. Earlier, from the time he was in mother's womb to the time he came to Śālśirṣa, his 'avadhijñāna was limited to know (see) up to heaven only.

Obstructions created by god SAngama

Once addressing gods and goddesses, *Iridra*, the king of gods said, 'Oh gods! *Śramaṇa* Lord Mahāvīra is the bravest in all three worlds. No god or demon can even slightly distract him from meditation. In that assembly there was a god name S*Ariga*ma. He was 'abhavya' (one who will never achieve salvation). He

said, 'king god *Indra* is making such statement due to affection. Who is that man, whom god cannot distract? I will distract him today only. *Indra* thought, 'If I stop him, then it will mean that Mahāvīra is doing penance with the help of others.' *Indra* kept silent. S*Anga*ma came to Mahāvīra.

It was 11th year of *sādhanā*. Mahāvīra went to *Dṛḍdhhabūmi*. There he stayed in a *polāś* temple in the garden of *Peḍhāl*, out side the town. He had fasted for three days without water. He was standing in meditation posture. The body was a little inclined. His eyes were steady on one object. Unblinking eyes –'*trāṭak*'. All organs steady in their respective place. All sense organs under control. Both legs together. Both hands extended towards knees. In this posture Mahāvīra was standing steadily for one riight '*mahāpratimā*'. During that riight S*Anga*ma gave Mahāvīra 20 fatal agonies and pains.

Rain of steel dust. 2. Creation of sharp jawed ants. 3. Creation of sharp jawed bugs. 4. Creation of scorpions. 5. Creation of mangoose with sharp jaws. 6. Creation of poisonous and angry snakes. 7. Creation of rats. 8. Creation of elephant (threw Mahāvīra high in sky and then fell him down on earth.) 9. Creation of female elephant (beating with trunks). 10. Creation of devil. 11. Creation of tiger. (piercing with nails. 12. Heart-breaking cry made in form of Siddhārth. 13. Making request in form of Triśalā. 14. Taking form of a cook, and cooking food on a fire made in between two legs of Mahāvīra. 15. Taking a form of an executioner hung cages of birds on Mahāvīra's hands, ears and neck. 16. Created strong winds. 17. Created a cyclone, wherein Mahāvīra's body was trembling like a cane. 18. Created a fatal missile and threw it at Mahāvīra. Mahāvīra was pressed down into the ground upto the nails of his hands. 19. Exhibiting wealth of a Sāmānik god created tempting and enticing obstructions. 20. Creation of false dawn (sun rise). Mahāvīra knew that this was not a natural dawn but an artificial one. So he continued his meditation.

Lion-man Mahāvīra was not distracted from his meditation even for a smallest part equivalent to husk of a seed. He reflected, 'All this is done by you (self) only. There is no penalty or penance for a pure soul.' When he could not distract Mahāvīra, SArigama returned. Next day, again he created obstructions. Next morning Mahāvīra went towards a town called Bālukā. SArigama created 500 thieves, and created obstruction. In several towns he created obstructions in many forms. This process continued for six months.

Begging of pardon by SAngama

SArigama saw with his 'avadhijhān', 'if Mahāvīra was distracted? Was his faith broken?' Mahāvīra's faith was as pure as it was six months ago. He was contemplating for the happiness and well being of all living being of six types. Seeing this SArigama fell at the feet of Mahāvīra and said, 'Oh Lord! Whatever Indra said is true. I have failed my resolution. You are true resolute. I beg your pardon for whatever I have done. Now I will not obstruct.' Till that day all gods in Sudharmā heaven were sitting distressed. SArigama went there. Seeing him, Śakra said, 'Oh gods! Listen. He is a wicked soul. He is an opponent of Tīrtharikara. He is not fit even to talk to. He should be deported. SArigama was kicked out (of heaven)

2.9 Candanbālā: abolition of slavery

It was 12th year of sādhanā. Lord Mahāvīra was travelling in the central towns of Vaiśālī and Kauśambī. He came to know that soldiers of king Śatānīka had looted the city of Campā. And some soldiers had kidnapped queen Dhārṇī and princess Vasumatī. Dhārṇī had already died. Vasumatī was living as a slave-maid in the house of a merchant called Dhanāvāha. Pathetic condition of females and slavery: A picture these two conditions arose before his eyes. He mentally made a plan of non-violent resistance against atrocities on women.

Lord Mahāvīra came to *Kauśāmbī*. First day of the month of *pauṣa*. Lord made a resolution. 'I will take alms (food) from the hand of a princess who has become slave. Whose head is totally shaven. Whose hands and feet are in shackles. Who is hungry for three days. Who has tears in her eyes. Who is standing in the midst of doorsill and in front of who are lying some boiled beans in a corner of a winnowing basket.

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Lord Mahāvīra went for begging in the homes of *Kauśāmbī*. People wanted to give him food with great faith and reverence. But Lord returned without taking anything. Everyday it was the same routine. Four months passed away. Fifth month also passed in fasting. 25 days of sixth month also passed.

Here Vasumatī stepped into Dhanāvāha's house as a slave, but, because of her excellence she became a daughter. Fragrance and coolness of her virtues made her Candanā (sandalwood) out of Vasumatī. Looking at her beauty, mother Mūlā's mind was burning with jealousy and suspicion. She thought, 'my husband may marry her'. Once when the merchant had gone out, Mūlā called for a barber. Candanā's head was shaved off. Shackles were put on her hands and feet. She was made to sit in a dangeon. The dangeon's doors were closed and locked. All the servants were given strict command that, any one who would say anything to the merchant in this matter, his life would not be safe. Later, when the merchant came home, Candanā was not be seen. Three days passed. He made enquiries. Getting an indication from an old maid, the merchant opened the doors of that room. He was stupefied. Candanā said, Father! All this is the result of some of my unknown deeds of my previous birth.' Listening to Candanā's generous and noble words, the merchant got some relief. He went to kitchen. There were a few boiled beans. He went away to call a blacksmith, after putting the beans in a corner of a winnowing basket, and keeping it in front of Candanā.

Lord Mahāvīra, as per his routine, on 26th day of 6th month, reached merchant Dhanāvāha's house. There, Candanā was standing on thresold. Hands and feet were in shackels. Head was shaved off. She was hungry for three days, there were boiled beans in a corner of a winnowing basket near her. She, a princess, was living a life of a slave. Suddenly because of Lord's presence there, her face blossomed. She spoke very softly. 'Your honour! I have these boiled beans. Please do me a favor. Please accept food from my hands.'

In a few moments there was a snowfall of hope and happiness. Lord turned away without accepting the food. Tears started flowing from Candanā's eyes. Now all the conditions of the resolution were fulfilled. Lord came back, he accepted boiled beans from her hand. Five divine lamps got ignited. Talk about Lord Mahāvīra accepting food from a maid-slave spread all over the town. King Šatānīka and queen Mṛgā Vārī also appreciated the fate of that maid-slave. They came to Dhanāvāha's home. It did not take much time to recognise, that the maid-slave was king Dadhivāhan's daughter. When people knew her true identity, they started cursing the social structure and prevailing social practices. In such a social structure, where a princess can be sold, what can be the fate of others? How agonizing is the life? This practice of slavery is injustice. It is a blemish on humanity.' Because of this debate, the intellectual class of the society was worried. The penance of Lord Mahāvīra shook and influenced the mind of people so much, that the roots of slave system got shaken. First effect was on Candanā, she was freed from slavery for life. The special effort by Lord Mahāvīra in the direction of resurrection of females was successful.

Among tribals

Mahāvīra stayed in *Rājagṛha* for his 8th monsoon stay over. He did penance for four months. He made several extra ordinary resolutions. He took his first food after the fast outside the town. It was wintertime. Mahāvīra pondered,' I have many 'karma' (yet to be destroyed). Shedding them off is not easily possible. I should go to undeveloped country. And there, on account of those tribal people, I should shed off my 'karma'. Thinking like that Mahāvīra went to Vajrabhūmi and Sumhabhūmi in Lāḍhhadeśa. The people there, were cruel, brutal, and barbarous, eating dry food.

Ninth year of *sādhanā*. Lord Mahāvīra was going towards a village. The villagers asked,' oh nude! Where are you going? Why are you going to our village? Go away.' Lord went back.

Once Lord Mahāvīra was standing facing east, and was enduring sun heat. Some people came there and stood there in front of him. Lord did not look at them. They got annoyed. They shouted at him; spit on him, and then went away. Lord was standing calmly.

Lord Mahāvīra's eyes were half-open. One person threw sand at him. Lord neither closed eyes, nor got angry. Seeing failure of his efforts he got angry, and punched Lord. Even then Lord's calm was not disturbed. He threw brickbats. He threw bones. At last he assaulted with spear. People, standing there started shouting. Lord Mahāvīra just kept quiet and calm.

There were fierce dogs around. They would bite even if one has a stick with him. Lord had neither a stick nor any other weapon with him. Some dogs would surround him and bite him. Some people would call the dogs and the dogs would pounce upon Lord Mahāvīra. The tribal would swing with joy. Some people were kind. They would go there and drive away the dogs.

Once Lord Mahāvīra was meditating in a valley of mountain. Some people saw a man sitting in 'Padmāsana' posture for the first time. They stood there for hours with curiosity. One man came forward and pushed him. Lord toppled over. But again he became steady in his 'Padmāsan' posture. These people were good-natured. They came near the Lord and bowing down at his feet said, 'we have troubled you. Please forgive us.

Seeing Lord's strange face, some persons asked,' who are you?' 'I am a bhikhu.' Giving such a short reply Lord would keep quiet.

It was time for 'cāturmās' (monsoon stay). He did not find a suitable place in that habitat. So he stayed below trees. There for six months he experimented with 'anitya jāgarikā.' this was his ninth monsoon stay.

Lord Mahāvīra was a great source of non-violence. For the tribal he had the same love flowing in his mind the flow of which was bathing every living being. He was always in happy mood. The happiness achieved by meditation and strength of contemplation was not battered by the cyclone of circumstances.

From a 'sādhaka's' (practitioner of sādhanā) view point, who has entered the internal world, the occurrences of creation of obstructions and impediments by demon Śulapāṇi, demoness Kaṭaputanā, god SAṅgama and others, are occurrences of manifestation of 'saṅskāra' (previously accumulated karma). Horselaugh, elephant, snake, demons etc. created in the vicinity of Lord Mahāvīra were all reflection of his own accumulated 'saṅsakāra'. Rising of long time accumulated hidden 'saṅsakāra' are scorpion, python or other wild animals. Before achieving self-realization or perception of perfect truth, each 'sādhaka has to cross over or pass across these hazardous and treacherous mountain ghats.

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Two days fasts—229 times
Three days fasts—12 ' ' '
Fortnight fasts —72

Bhadrapratimā —1 time
One month fasts—12 ' ' '
One and half month fasts—2 times

Mahābhaarapratimā —1 time
Two months fasts—6" ' '
Two and half months fasts—2 times

SarVātobadrapratimā—1 time
Three months fasts —2 ' ' '
Four months fasts —9 ' ' '
Five months fasts ——1 time
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Six months fasts —1

During the whole *sādhanā* period, Lord Mahāvīra took food for 350 days only. He never took food on consecutive days. He never took water when fasting. None of penance was less than two days fasts. At the end of every three days fasts, he meditated for one night in *bhikṣupratimā* posture. He did 12 three days fasts. Hundreds of times he meditated in different difficult postures.

Even when there was no sickness, he always had very light diet. He would not use any therapy when he was not well. Once a cowherd put nails in his ears. One physician removed the nails and applied some medicines. But Lord Mahāvīra even in his mind did not approve applying of the medicine. He was totally insensitive to this.

Some times Lord Mahāvīra would have only some coarse beans as his diet. He lived for eight months having diet of three types of coarse beans viz. $k\bar{a}do$, sattu, and udad. Food may be with or without condiment, be it cold rice, or stale cereals, or even food is available or not available - in all those circumstances Lord Mahāvīra would be without pain or pleasure. Many times he did not drink water for half a month, a month, two months, or even six months. He did not think of food. Some times he would get stale coarse cereals or some times he would get very rich food. But in both cases his mental stability would not get disturbed.

He did not take bath; he did not clean teeth; did not use any body care materials or processes. He even did not clean his eyes. He even did not scratch his body. He was free from all such bodily functions. His attention to his body was minimal. His mind, thoughts, resolutions, sense organs, and his desires were all moving in one direction only. Lord Mahāvīra was merging his mental flow into the big river of supreme consciousness with the help of asceticism and stopping inflow of new karma, and by practice and perception.

3.1 Achieving 'Kevaljñār' (whole and perfect knowledge) and establishing 'Tīrtha' (institution of followers)

Lord Mahāvīra completed twelve years doing his sādhanā. Now it was the 13th year. It was second month of summer. 10th day of bright fortnight of the month of Vaisākha. Auspicious day and auspicious time. Vijaya muharat, uttarāfalgunī constellation, the fourth part of the day. Outside Jṛmbhikāgrām town, on the north bank of Rijubālikā river, in the farm of Śyāmak landLord, in the north-east corner of Vyāvṇa temple, not very far from nor very near to the Śāl tree. Mahāvīra, first sat in 'Utkaṭukā' posture, then he sat in 'Godohikā' posture, knees pointing upwards, head learning down. Two days of fast without water. Total concentration in 'dharma-dhyāna'. Then he entered the final stage of 'śukla-dhyān'. At this stage Lord Mahāvīra attained 'kevaljāna' and 'kevaldarśana' (the whole and perfect knowledge, and whole and perfect perception). He could then know and see all mental and physical dispositions of all living beings. He had now acquired right to speak. He started moving from place to place. In his first congregation he defined religion. In this first congregation only gods were present, therefore there was no one to take vows with or without exception. In the second congregation he enlightened humans about religion. It was 11th day of the bright fortnight of the month of vaiśākha. Mahāvīra stayed at Mahāsen Park outside the town of Central Pāvā. He was alone, lonely inside and lonely outside. He had no disciple, and no assistant, but only a natural spontaneous and inborn inspiration for the well being, happiness and benevolence of all living beings.

At that time, Somil Brāhman was orGanīsing a big 'yajña' in the town of Central Pāvā. On his 'yajña' premises, eleven very learned and proficient scholars including Indrabhūti and their 4400 disciples were present. They noticed that, thousands of people were going in a particular direction. They had curiosity to know. Receiving news from a messenger, they all went to the convocation of the new leader of 'Śramaṇās', the omniscient Mahāvīra.

Lord Mahāvīra pouring the nectar of love and friendship from his own eyes into their eyes said,' Oh

Indrabhūti Gautama you have come?' Hearing his name from an unknown person, Gautama was confused. To clear the confusion and remove doubts from his mind, Mahāvīra asked him, 'Gautama! Why do you have doubt about existence of a 'jīva' (a living being)? How can anything that does not have east and west, can have center? Existence of present itself is the witness of past and future. If the micro substance is not acceptable, then how 'motion- substance' and 'space-substance' can be accepted? This 'jīva' (soul) is a truth, which is beyond sense organs. Do not overpower it with sense organs. But comprehend it with extra sensory perception.

Hearing Lord's speech, Gautama was emancipated. His yearning to comprehend his own existence became very strong. This was expressed by him in the following words. 'Oh Lord! Please take me under your protection. Lord replied, 'as you wish'. Indrabhūti (Gautama), together with his 500 disciples took refuge under Lord Mahāvīra. Once more, Indrabhūti made the dignified Brāhman tradition proud. It is this quality of appreciating and absorbing the virtues, and the mentality of searching for the truth, of Brāhmans, that has kept them at the top in education and character for thousands of years.

The news about 'dikṣā' (renunciation) of Indrabhūti spread in the city very fast, like a drop of oil in the water. Positive energy attracts negative energy. Like that, Mahāvīra attracted all the remaining scholars in med Univers such a way, that they could not resist. Each scholar came to Lord Mahāvīra, one by one. Each got initiated after he was addressed by the Lord and after refining his own belief.

Their beliefs were:

Indrabhūti —Soul does not exist.

Agnibhūti — Karma does not exist.

Vāyubhūti — the body itself is soul.

Vyakta — Five (basic) elements do not exist.

Sudharmā - After death, a living being will have rebirth in the same species.

Mandit — Bandha (bondage) and moksa (salvation) do not exist.

Mauryaputra —Heaven does not exist.

Akampit ——Hell does not exist.

Acalbhrātā — Римуа (merit) and pāpa (demerit) are not separate.

Metārya — There is no rebirth.

Prabhās — There is no enuncipation.

Lord Mahāvīra defined two types religions; one 'āgār' that is yows with exceptions for layman; another 'anag $\bar{a}r'$ that is yows without exceptions for monks. He also pronounced four ways to reach to salvation: viz. 'samyag darśana', (true perception), 'samyag jñān' (true knowledge), 'samyag caritra' (true character), 'samyag tapa' (true penance). Fle pronounced five 'mahāvrata' (great vows), five 'samiti' (precautions), and three 'gupti' (controls); 43 components of monk's religion. 14000 monks and 36000 nuns were initiated under his rule. At that time spokesmen of vedik religion were propagating inferiority of women. Mahāvīra did not favor it. He by establishing an order of nuns gave a big push to the movement of upliftment of women. He initiated Candanacala and made her the leader of the order of nuns. The leadership of order of monks was given to Indrabhūti and other 11 'Ganadhara'.

Lord Mahāvīra considered communalism as fallacious and antiequanimity that is why people from all communities were initiated in his confraternity. His eleven chief disciples were Brāhmans. Even those 4400 monks who got initiated with eleven were also Brāhmans. Many people from Ksatriya community also were initiated. King Dasamabhadra of Dasampura, king Udrayan of Sindhu-Sauvīra, king Šiva of Hastināgpur, and many other Ksatriya kings were initiated by Lord Mahavira. Queen Mṛga Vātī of king Šatānīka of Kauśāmbī,

and many queens of emperor Šrenika of *Magadha* were also initiated. Dhannā, Šālibhdra, Anāthī and others from business community, and Arjunmālī and others from lower castes were also initiated in Lord Mahāvīra's confraternity.

Those people who were not capable of getting initiated into monk's life, but wanted to follow the religion of equanimity were initiated in 'anuvrata' that is minor vows. They were called 'śrāvaka - śrāvīkā. Lakhs of people became 'anuvratī'.

Lord Mahāvīra by establishing these four istitutions of monks, nuns, śrāvaka and śrāvikā became a Tīrtharikara. A big gate to the life of confraterrity was opened. A question comes up; why did Lord Mahāvīra had a desire to establish 'tīrtha', even after achieving 'kevalya'? The word 'tīrtha' also means 'sermon'. Because Lord Mahāvīra gave the 'sermons', he became 'Tīrtharikara. 'tīrtha', the institution got orGaṇīzed because of effect of sermons. And this 'tīrtha' has kept Lord's sermon alive and safe. Even to day it is kept safe.

Mahāvīra and Gautama

Gautama was coming to Lord from *Priṣṭhhacampā*. Monks Šāl and Gāgalī (who were earlier kings of *Priṣṭhhacampā*) were also with him. There was a definite sitting arrangement in the Lord Mahāvīra's congregation. People sat in their allocated space according to their status. Šāl and Gāgalī went into the space allocated for 'kevalī' (omniscient). Gautama stopped them going there. But Lord said,' Gautama! Do not stop them. They have already become 'kevalī'. Gautama was astonished.' How is that my newly initiated disciples have become 'kevalī'?' Gautama was unhappy.

After a few days Gautama had gone to Astāpad (mountain). Kodinna, Dinna, and Śaivāla, three ascetic with their disciples were also going up Astāpad. They were all influenced by Gautama. They became his disciples. Gautama returned to Lord Mahāvīra with them. They started to go into the space allocated for 'kevalī'. Gautama stopped them going there. But Lord said, 'Gautama! Do not stop them. They have already become 'kevalī'.

Gautama's patience got disturbed. He asked, 'Oh my Lord! We are all walking along the same path of sādhanā. Then why the road of my disciples is so short and my road is so long? Lord replied in the language of solace. Gautama! Why are you impatient? You are bound with me for a long time by a thread of love and affection. You are my admirer for a long time. You know me for a long time. You have been following me according to my convenience for a long time. In the earlier birth, I was a god. That time you were with me. Now in this human birth also you are with me. Our relationship has been long lasting. In future, after freedom from this body (that is death), we both will be identical. Meaning of 'mine' and 'yours' will not be different, purpose will not be different, and area will not be different. And all this will happen in short time. So why are you unhappy? You be alert, and do not have remissness even for a moment.

Lord Mahāvīra revealing the mystery said, 'Gautama! sādhanā path of these newly initiated Śramaṇa is not a short one. But they have traveled very fast. They cut-off the affection bond very speedily. That is how they have reached their destination faster. You could not cut-off your affection thread till now. Your affection thread is still entangled in my body. You know how strong is this bond of love and affection, and how intricate and fine it is. The wasp, which can cut through solid wood, becomes a prisoner in the delicate lotus flower. You look at this bondage. Keep observing it. There will come a moment, when you will see brightness and only brightness. Everything will be brilliantly illuminated.

Lord Mahāvīra and Gośālaka

Second year of *sādhanā*. Impressed by Lord Mahāvīra's penancing personality, Gośālaka, son of Maṅkhali became his disciple. For some years he stayed with Mahāvīra, then he left him.

Third year of sādhanā. Mahāvīra and Gośālaka were going from Kollaga society to Suvarnakhala. On the way they saw cowherds cooking 'khīra' (sweet rice cooked in milk). Gośālaka requested Mahāvīra to stop. Mahāvīra said, 'khīra will not get cooked. The vessel will break.' Saying that, Mahāvīra walked onwards. Gośālaka stayed there. He cautioned the cowherds. The cowherds tied the vessel with bamboo strips. The vessel was filled with milk and too much of rice. The rice expanded when boiled, and the vessel broke. All the 'khīra' spilled. This was the first seed of the theory of 'niyati' (destiny) sowed in the mind of Gośālaka. He thought,' whatever is going to happen, must happen'. Several such occurrences happened and he became 'niyatiwādī' (a believer in the theory of destiny).

Tenth year of sādhanā. Mahāvīra wasin the town of Koormagrāma. There, an ascetic named Vaiśyāyan was doing penance. It was afternoon. Both the hands stretched upwards. Open matted beard. Staring directly at the sun. This was his posture. Some lice were falling down from his beard. He would lift the lice and put them back into his beard. Seeing this Gośālaka asked him several times. 'Who is the patron of those lice?' The ascetic became very angry. He administered a particular yogic power called 'tejolabdhi'. Smoke came out from his mouth. Flames of fire started rising. Mahāvīra administered the opposite power, the cold 'tejolabdhi', and extinguished the fire. Gośālaka's life was saved. Now he (Gośālaka) was anxious to possess this power. Mahāvīra explained to him its secrets. Gośālaka immediately started its sādhanā. He regularly fasted for two days continuously for six months. He would stand in the sun and stare at the sun and bear its heat. On the day of breaking the fast, he would eat only a fistful of boiled 'uḍad' (cereals), and drink only a spoonful of warm water. By this sādhanā he obtained 'Tejolabdhi', and became very powerful. He stayed with Mahāvīra for six years and then separated.

Fifteenth year of *Tīrtharikara* dom. Lord Mahāvīra was staying at *Koṣṭhhaka* temple in the town of Śrāvasti. His eldest disciple Gautama went to the town for begging food. There he heard from people that Gośālaka was calling himself a *Tīrtharikara*. People had somewhat acquainted him with Gautama's extra sensory knowledge. Hearing such stories from people Gośālaka was much annoyed. One day, he with his followers came to Lord Mahāvīra's assembly and said; 'Oh Ayuṣyamān Kaśayap! Iam not your disciple. The one who was your disciple is dead. I have recollected my last seven transmigration (births).

In the seventh human birth I was Udāi Kuhḍian. Outside the town of *Rājgṛha*, in *Mandikukṣa* temple, leaving the body of Udāi Kuhḍian, I entered the body of Aeyneyaka, and stayed in it for 22 years. Then in the towns of *Campa*, *Vārāṇasi*, *Vaiśālī* etc., I entered bodies of Roha etc. individuals and stayed in them for several years. Then leaving the body of Arjuna in the town of *Śrāsvasti* I have entered this body of Gośālaka. I will be free after 16 years. Like this I have done seven transmigrations in 123 years.

Lord said, 'Do not have yourself. It is not proper to do so.' Gośālaka was very angry. He started babbling unrestrained. '(I) Do not know if you will be saved today. Now some evil of yours may happen by my hands.'

All *śraman* (monks) were silent. Lord had cautioned them earlier.' If Gośālaka comes here, then no one will debate with him. Do not remind him of earlier happening and do not detest him'. But east country disciple, monk Sarvānubhūti and monk Sunakṣatra from Ayodhyā could not keep silent. They tried to council him. But he got inforiated. He administered special power of 'Tejolabdhi', and burnt (reduced to ashes) both of them in full view of Lord Mahāvīra. Then using his all strength he administered the same power on Lord Mahāvīra. Every one was dazed. The 'tejas' went round Lord's body several times and then leaped towards the sky; and rebounding towards Gośālaka, blazing his body, entered it. He said, 'Kāśyap! Now you die in non-omniscient condition within six months, suffering from fever and burns. Lord Mahāvīra said, 'I will not die within six months. I will live for next sixteen years. You will choose death within next seven days.'

Lord Mahāvīra came to Mendhhiya village leaving Śrāsvasti. There he suffered from fever, burns, and

blood ailment. He stayed at Śānakosṭhak temple near Maluyakuchchh. There a monk named Singh was doing meditation sādhanā. Hearing about fever, burnsetc. he left his place of meditation and came to Maluyakutchchh, started crying loudly. Lord Mahāvīra sent some monks to call him, and pacified him fully. Singh requested for medicine. Lord said, 'it will get cured by itself when time ripen.' But on further request, Lord said,' Singh! You go to housewife ReVāti's home. She has prepared a sweet (kumhede) for me. Do not bring that. She has also prepared another sweet (bijorāpāk) for her household, bring that one.' He went there and brought 'bijorāpāk'. Lord ate it. The disease got cured. Everybody was happy hearing good news about Lord's health.

Gośālaka died on the seventh day. At the last moment he repented for his misdeeds. He self-reproached and self-condemned for his was wrong doings. After dying he reborn in the 12th heaven named, *Acyutkalp*. After dying there, and after many transmigration, and after a long time he will attain salvation.

'Parinirvāṇ' (great salvation) of Mahāvīra

Kevaljhānī monks — 700 Kevaljhānī nuns — 1400

Lord Mahāvīra had his last monsoon stay at *Rajjuk* assembly hall of king Hastipālaka in Central *Apāpā* Town. It was the fourth month of that monsoon stay. Seventh fortnight. 15th day of dark fortnight of the month of *kārtikā*. 'amāvasyā', Total dark night. Two days of fast without water.Lord Mahāvīra was giving sermon continuously for two days and nights. In the last sermon he specifically made in depth analysis of fruits of 'puṇya' and 'pāpa' (merits and demerits). He attained salvation while giving the sermon. He is bondage of birth, old age, and death were broken. He became omniscient, totally liberated and free from all misery. At the mid-night, for a moment a wave of happiness passed through the whole world.

At the time of salvation the following was the astrological arrangement.

Second *samVātsar*, named moon. *Prītivardhan* month. *Nandivardhan* fortnight. *Agniveṣa* day. *Devanaṇda* right. *Arcilāvā. Muhurat Prān. Stoka Siddha. Nāgakaran. Sarvārhasiddha Muhurat*, and *Swāti Naxatra* (constelation).

The night was illuminated by lights of many planes of gods and goddesses landing and taking off.

Deepāvali festival: On that total dark night, heads of 18 republics of Kāšī- Kaušal, Navamallavī and Navalicchhavī performed 'pauṣadha'. Now, because the spiritual illumination was gone, they resolved to make physical illumination.

Kevalya (jñāna) to Gautama: that night the eldest internal disciple Indrabhūti Gautama's bondage of affection was broken. He obtained never-ending and ever lasting kevaljñān and kevaldaršan.

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Lord Mahāvīra's birth $599B.C.—before Vikram year 542

Lord Mahāvīra's introdation 569 B.C.—before Vikram year 512

Lord Mahāvīra's 'kevaljīnān' 557 B.C.—before Vikram year 500

Lord Mahāvīra's salvation 527 B.C.—before Vikram year 470

List of disciples:

Śramaṇa (monks) ——14000

Śramaṇi (nuns) ——36000

Śravak (house holder)—1,59,000

Śāvikā (housewife) ——3,18,000

Born in Anuttar heaven—800
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Avadhijhāni --1300 Manahaparyavajñānī --500 Vaikriyalabdhidhar — **–**700 14 Purvī (scholars) — -300

Differences in traditional beliefs:

Śwetām ba ca

- 1. Lord Mahāvīra's mother was Cetak's sister.
- 3. Lord Mahāvīra's parents died before his 'dikṣā' (initiation).
- 2. Prince Mahāvīra was married to Yaśodā, daughter of nobleman Sāmvīra of Vasaritpur.
- on 11th day of bright fortnight of the month of vaiśākha in Central Pavāpur.
- Lord Mahāvīra was giving sermon. by speech.
- Lord Mahāvīra was taking food even. after he became 'kevalī'.
- 7. The first Ācārya after Lord Mahāvīra was Ācārya Sudharmā.

Digambara

- 1. Lord Mahāvīra's mother was Cetak's daughter.
- Lord Mahāvīra's parents were living at the time of 'dikṣā.
- propasal of marrying Yaśodā, daughter of king Jitašatru of *Kaliriga, c*ame before Mahāvīra, but he did not marry.
- Lord Mahāvīra's first sermon was given 4. Lord Mahāvīra's first sermon was given on 1st day of dark fortnight of the month of sravana on *Vipulācal* Mountain.
 - Lord Mahāvīra was giving sermon by divine. sound.
 - Lord Mahāvīra was not taking food after he became *'kevalī'.*
 - The first Ācārya after Lord Mahāvīra was Ācārya Gautama.

The Fundamental Principle

Lord Mahāvīra was born in royal family. He was brought up in wealth. He became monk at the age of thirty. He lived a life of penance for twelve and half years. He preached religion. He traveled through Kāśī, Kauśal, Pancāl, Kalinga, Kamboj, Kuru-jAngal, Bahalikā, Gāndhār, Sindhu-Sauvīr, and etc. countries. He showed the way of peace, equanimity, and 'anekāritavād' (nonabsolutism) to common people. His philosophy was not only for an individual, but was also for the society. His religion is not only for life after death, but also for the present life. With his system of conduct, not only internal (personal) problems are solved but also problems of social arrangements are resolved. His non-violence is not for a coward. His non-violence is for a warrior. Fearlessness and bravery are integral parts of it. His retirement is not worklessness. It is a great instrument of spiritual strength and unconquerable power of cleansing 'karma'. Even today, his teachings have efficiency to show the path to world-peace. His principles are as much important and valid today as they were 2500 years before. A short summary of Lord Mahāvīra's principles regarding religion, philosophy and conduct is given here.

A nekānta (non-absolutism) and *Samatā* (equanimity)

Gaṇadhar Gautama was asking many questions to Lord Mahāvīra. Once he asked,' Do you exist or not exit?' Lord said,' I exist and also do not exist.' 'How can both happen together?' Explaining this Mahāvīra said, 'It is absolutely certain that I exist with reference to my own soul and consciousness. It is also absolutely certain that I do not exist with reference to others consciousness. No one thing is, only true or real; and only false or unreal. In it reside, infinite contrary couples like, permanent-temporary, visible invisible, expressible-

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nonexpressible, etc. This coexistence of contradicting couples is the reality. This is non-absolutism. The lines of non-violence compose a picture of friendship in the context of the world of living beings; and they compose a picture of non-absolutism in the context of material world. Solid rays of friendship flowing from Lord's mind (spirit) would make a lion, loving and gentle, and a goat fearless. In the vicinity of god both will sit together, side by side.

All the experiences and speeches of Lord Mahavira can be put within the confine of two words only. non-absolutism and equanimity. Mahāvīra observed and studied the philosophies of his time and experienced that: The whole reality in its completeness can not be grasped by and can not be understood by partial thought or expression. He propounded the doctrine of plenary philosophy of 'anekāritavāda' (nonabsotulism). Doctrine of non-absolutism is the path to neutrality from attachment and aversion. It is a divine vision to look for conciliation among all philosophies. The name of the religion propounded by Mahāvīra is 'samatā dharma' or 'samyaka dharma', 'religion of equanimity'. He lived in many forms of equanimity, and he propounded it isity La in many forms, such as:

Consider all living being equal to one's own self.

Do not loose your equilibrium under any circumstances

Live in the moment free of attachment aversion.

The divine tree of equanimity has two great branches; non-possession and non-violence. Equanimity is a way of conduct and also an instrument to make right attitude. Development of equanimity is done in three phases; friendship, fearlessness, and tolerance. One, who can not tolerate the circumstances, can not be fearless. And a frightened person can not develop friendship.

Non-violence and friendship

Mahāvīra's doctrine of conciliation is rational in the context of the material world, and is non-violence in the context of the living world. Mahāvīra's complete journey is from a personality to existence. He said: ' To whom you wish to kill, is you yourself. To whom you want to make servant is you yourself. If any soul is not different than me, not separate from me, then how can I kill him?' This is the experience of non-separatism on the ground of existence. This is non-violence. The separatism between soul and soul is violence. Soul only is non-violence, and soul only is violence. In the world of personality, Mahāvīra said,' Do not kill any living being. The way you do not like suffering, in the same way other living beings also do not like suffering. Therefore do not harm any one. Consider every one equal to self. Experience of equality pacifies the instinct of violence. Remissness is violence, and non-remissness is non-violence. Ill feelling towards any one is itself violence. Lord Buddha announced, 'bahujanahitāya' (for the benefit of many people). Lord Mahāvīra gave the message of non-violence 'sarvajanahitāya' (for the benefit of all people). Non-violence is an eternal religion. It is for the protection of all living beings. There can not be any crack of enmity in the pot of nonviolence. It can hold water of equality only if it is without any crack.

Mahāvīra's popular slogan is, 'appannā succa me sejjā', you search for truth yourself. This announcement has earned the credit of being scientific for the Jaina phlosophy. This is more relevent in this scientific age. In scientific world also there is freedom of right to search for the truth. This freedom has reached the scientists to the age of atom bomb. Mahāvīra had put a control on the abuse of freedom. The second line the slogan is 'mettim bhūyesu kappaye', make friendship with every one. Let not the search for the truth be an obstruction in the friendship with all living beings, or a hindrance to the universal brotherhood. If the friendship were made an inevitable criterion for the search of truth, then science would not have gone on to the road of annihilation. Human power can be constructive only by making search of truth and friendship, necessary supplementary to each other. Only under that condition, the conception of world-peace and disarmament can take shape.

Mṛgā vā tī and Candrapradyota

Lord Mahāvīra understood the rightness of role of conduct. For that reason he did not negate retaliation, nor he gave message for aggression in duty. Instead, he advised discretion of viewpoint of non-violence even in retaliation. Even when violence was inevitable, he advised discretion of remembering compassion.

Candrapradyota of *Ujjayinī* was a very powerful king. He was a well known lecherous of that era. Seeing a painting of queen Mṛgā*Vāt*ī he fell in love with her. He sent a messenger to king Śatānīka and demanded Mṛgā*Vāt*ī. Śatānīka reprimanding the messenger sent him back with refusal. Candrapradyota, getting angry, invaded the kingdom of *Vātsa*. Śatānīka got frightened and died with heart attack.

The queen made strong arrangements for the safety of the city of *Kauśāmbī*. People of *Vātsa* got ready to protect their country and queen. A big army of Cańdrapradyota put a garrison around the city. Dark clouds of war had covered the land of *Vasta*. Mṛgā*Vāt*ī remembered Lord Mahāvīra. She saw some light in the darkness. She could see some solution to the problem. Lord Mahāvīra had come to a park near *Kauśāmbī*. Hearing the news of arrival of Lord Mahāvīra, the queen got the doors of the city opened. The atmosphere of fear turned into fearlessness. Mṛgā*Vāt*ī came to the assembly of Mahāvīra. Caṅdraprad jota also came. Lord Mahāvīra did not praise anyone, nor he showed annoyance towards any one. He was well acquainted with human weakness. He discussed non-violence without bias. As a result, there began the flow of purity in the minds of every one. Caṅdrapradyota's fury had given place to peace and humility.

Seeing an opportunity, $Mrg\bar{a}V\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$ said, 'oh Lord! I am very much impressed by your speech. If king Candrapradyota gives me permission and takes responsibility of sefety of Udāyan, prince of $V\bar{a}tsa$, then I wish to become a nun.

Candrapradyota's head bowed down, and his mind became humble. In the brightness of non-violence the darkness of frenzy disappeared. He agreed to take the responsibility of Udāyan's fate. The aggressor became the protector. Mṛgā Vātī's virtue and honour remained safe. She got permission to become a nun. Clouds of war dispersed. The two states, Ujjayanī and Vātsa were tied up in friendship.

Aparigraha - non-possession

Lord Mahāvīra, prescribed non-possession in the form of one of the great vows. A person who does not understand non-possession can not understand religion. All that is other than self (soul) is possession, if there is possessiveness for that. Possession has two modes. 1. Internal possession, the possessiveness. 2. External possession, the thing.

A thing by itself is not possession. Only when it is combined with possessiveness it becomes possession. One, who has means of liver hood but has no possessiveness for it, is abstainer. For a social person, Lord gave advice to abstain from possession, and to go in the direction of non-possession. Its internal form is to limit ones needs, and ones urge to possess; and its external form is to limit ones possession. Only, that person will accumulate limitless possession, who has limitless urge to possess. Lord Mahāvīra showed two directions to control accumulation.

1. descretion in using honest means for earning money.

Practice of abstinence in personal life.

Lord Mahāvīra laid down the foundation of a society of people with less- possession, lakhs of people joined it. They resolved not to accumulate wealth more than their requirement. For such people (less possessor), the following were barred: 1. Adulteration, 2. Wrong measurements in trading, 3. Switching of duplicate in place of original, 4. Overloading animals. Destroying lively hood of others.

People, who are engrossed in accumulation (hoarders), foster enmity. And the people who foster enmity can not promote non-violence. Thus non-violence and non-possession are two sides of the same coin. Dignity of one coexists with the dignity of other.

Śramaņopāsaka Pūniā

Lord Mahāvīra originated honour for non-possession in each individual. Pūriiā a disciple of Lord Mahāvīra was a live example of this faith. Emperor Śrenika asked Pūriiā, 'you give me (your) one 'sāmāyika' (a particular vow of equanimity). I will give you half of my kingdom in exchange.' Pūriiā politely refused the proposal. He was not ready to trade his spiritual 'sādhanā'.

Pūriā was not a wealthy man, he was making cotton rolls to earn his livelihood. But he was master of his own equilibrium. He had no faith in centralizing possession. He was prime follower of the resolution for less-possession.

Some excerpts from revolutionary philosophical principles propagated by Lord Mahāvīra are given here.

Non-violence, abstinence and religion with penance are the utmost superior blessings. They are the bestowers of the most happiness.

Religion and sect are not the same thing. Sect or garments\dress do not give protection to a characterless person.

Caste and family lineage do not give protection

Many different languages and various types of learning do not give peace.

A man is a 'Brāhmaṇ' by his deeds or a 'Kṣatriya by his deeds.

A person who is beyond sect, and who has not even learnt the first lesson of religion can become 'kevalī' (omniscient) by increasing spiritual purity. He is known as 'asocchā' (aśrutva) 'kevalī.

Some people can become free (from worldly bondage) even in the state of a householder. They are called 'grhalinga siddha'.

Some persons can become free (from worldly bondage)in the dress of 'anyatīrthika' (other prophets). They are called 'anyalinga'.

In the course of *sādhanā*, the penance is an external means, and meditation is an internal means. Two days of fasts can not be equal to two miniutes of meditation.

Do penance, to destroy accumulated 'sańskāra' (karma), and not to give pain to the body. 'kāyakleśa' is also a kind of penance. It means, develop power of body and mind by 'āsana' (yogic exersice)

Śrāvaka Dharma (religion for a layman)

Lord Mahāvīra prescribed two types of religions. 1. 'Āgār' dharma. Religion with exceptions. 2. 'Anagār' dharma. Religion without exception. Those persons who were not capable to accept 'Anagār' dharma, the monkhood, but still wanted to be initiated in 'samatā' dharma, Lord initiated them in 'Āgār dharma. They were known as 'śrāvakā - śrāvika' or 'śramaņopāsaka'. Life account of Lord Mahāvīra's ten 'śramaņopasaka' including the chief Śramaņopasaka Ānanda is found in Upāsakadaśa āgama.

Śramaņopasaka Ānanda

There lived a wealthy householder named Ānanda, of Patel caste, in Kollāga society. He owned 12

crore gold coins and 40,000 cows. One day he listened about religion from Lord Mahāvīra. Being very happy and satisfied, Ānanda said, 'oh Lord! I have faith in *Nirgranth's* sermon. I wish to acquire from you, five mini vows plus seven discipline vows, *śrāvaka* 's religion of 12 vows. Lord Mahāvīra said, 'oh Ānanda! As you wish. Do not delay.' Ānand with his wife Śivā*Nanda*, accepted *śrāvaka* religion. After properly practicing it for 20 years, at the end, accepted fast unto death with 'samlekhanā'. During the fast period, he obtained 'avadhijnāna' (faculty of direct knowledge), because of internal purity and alertness.

Gautama was the first desciple of Lord Mahāvīra. He was great speaker and great analyst of Lord's doctrine of 'non-absolutism'. One day he came to know that devotee Ānaṅda was preparing for 'samādhi death. He went to Ānaṅda's place. Ānaṅda welcomed him. During discussion on religion, Ānaṅda said, 'oh Lord! I have acquired extensive 'avadhijñāna', by doing sādhanā of non-remissness as explained by Lord Mahāvīra. I have seen and known, in east, west and south up to 500 'yojans' deep into 'Lavan' ocean, in north up to 'Chulla Himavant' mountain, above up to 'Saudharma' heaven and below up to Louluchhya' colony of first hell.' Gautama said, Ānaṅda! A house- holder can not obtain so extensive. But you are saying that you have obtained such direct 'jñāna'; for this you do penance.

Śramaņopāsaka Mahāśataka

It was 10th year of Mahāvīra's *Tīrtharikara* hood. Mahāśataka was doing his religious rites in his prayer room. His wife Re*Vāt*ī was very much apathetic and cruel. She tried to deviate Mahāśataka. But his faith in religion was not disturbed. His *sādhanā* continued unshaken. After a few days, she again tried to disuade him. This time Mahāśataka got very angry. He reprimanded Re*Vāt*ī. In spate of anger he said,' Re*Vāt*ī! You will die this week, suffering from *colera*. After death you will be reborn in hell.' Re*Vāt*ī was frightened. She got scared hearing the names of disease, death and hell. In the world of words, these three words are the most offensive words. Mahāśataka used them all three at a time. She died before the week ended.

Lord Mahāvīra came to *Rājagṛha*. Lord said to Gautama. 'Upāsaka Mahāśataka has used offensive words for his own wife. You go there and tell him; it is not expedient for a worshiper engrossed in *sādhanā* of equanimity to use such offensive words. Therefore you do penance for that. Gautama went to Mahāśataka. Gave him Lord's message. He (Mahāśataka) realized his remiss. He did penance. Light of non-remissness was rekindled.

Śramaņopāsaka Kāmadeva

It was 18th year of *Tirtharikar a*hood of Mahāvīra. Kāmadeva was doing meditation about virtue in his prayer room. It was early night. Suddenly a horrible image of devil appeared before him. It shouted in hoarse voice,' Kāmadeva! Leave this pretension of virtue and meditation. If you do not leave them, I will cut into pieces by a sword.' Kāmadeva was experiencing moments of non-remissness. He did not have any fear neither he was shaken, nor was he unhappy.

The devil realized futility of his efforts. He was frustrated. He took a form of an huge elephant and again tried to unsettle Kāmadeva. He threw Kāmadeva in the sky like a ball. On falling down he crushed him under his feet. But even then could not destroy the meditation. Now devil was fully decrepit. He took a form of a fearful snake. With his bite and stings pierced Kāmadeva's body, but still could not frightened him. At last he appeared in his original god's form and went away. Remissness got defeated by non-remissness.

Lord Mahāvīra came to the city of *Campa*. Kāmadeva came to Lord Mahāvīra. Lord invited all monks and nuns and said, 'oh Ārya! Kāmadeva is a householder. Even then he has shown unprecedented equanimity. His life is successful. You are all monks. Therefore your enlightenment in religion, equanimity, tolerance and non-deviation in meditation should be even better.

Jayantī

It was 3rd year of Tirthankaradom. Lord Mahavira was staying at CandraVataran caitya (temple) in the city of Kauśāmbī. King Šatānīka's sister, Jayantī came there. Bowing to Lord, she asked,

'Oh Lord! Is sleeping good or is awakening good?'

'For some living beings sleeping is good. And for some awakening is good'.

'Oh Lord! How both can be possible?'

'A non-religious person when awaken would make others sleep. Therefore his sleeping is good. A adnun religious person when awaken will awaken others. Therefore his awakening is good."

'Oh Lord! Is being strong good? Or is being weak good?'

'For some it is good to be strong. And for some it is good to be weak.'

'Oh Lord! How both can be possible?'

'A non-religious person by earning his livelihood unreligiously makes other unhappy. Therefore it is good for him to be weak. It is good for a religious person to be strong, because he, by earning his livelihood religiously does not become a cause of unhappiness for others."

'Oh Lord! What is good for living beings, to be idle or to be active?'

'It is good for an unrestrained person to be idle, then he can not harm others. It is good for an abstemious person to be active, then he can help others."

Lord Mahāvīra explained every reality in the language of relativity. By giving the sight of nonabsolutism, he made thousands of people capable of seeing the truth."

King Śrenika

Lord Mahāvīra was religion personified. His abstention was unparalleled. This made his disciples also symbol of abstention. Seeing the unparalleled abstention of great monk. Anāthī, emperor Bimbsāra-Śrenika of Magadha became a devotee of Lord Mahāvīra. In the earlier part of his life he was a devotee of Buddha. His chief queen Chelana was a devotee of Lord Mahavira. She tried to convert the emperor to Jainism. The emperor tried to convert her to Buddhism. But none gave way. The emperor once saw the great monk Anathi fully engrossed in meditation. He went nearer to him. There was a dialogue. In the end he became Jaina.

After that Śrenika had glose contact with Jaina sermons. Emperor's son AbhayaKumār was Jaina. In Jaina tradition even today people ask for blessings to acquire the intelligence similar to that of AbhayaKumār. He was repeatedly asking permission for initiation. But Śrenika was not giving this permission. One day Śrenika said, 'the day I tell you the words ' $j\bar{a}$ re $j\bar{a}$ '(go away), that day you can go for initiation. One day Śrenika became a prisoner in the prison of doubt. After giving order to AbhayaKumār to burn the royal palace, he him self went away to Lord Mahāvīra. From distance he saw flames of fire and smoke. On the way he met AbhayaKumār. Šreņika asked, 'what is this?' AbhayaKumār replied, 'execution of orders of the emperor.' Śrenika said, 'jā re jā' (you go away). What have you done?' AbhayaKumār's wish was fulfilled. Taking permission from his father he got initiated by Lord Mahāvīra.

Arhat Pāršva and *Śramaņa* Mahāvīra

A Tirtharikara does not propagate truth depending upon old 'sastra'. They propagate the truth only after self-experiencing it first hand. Lord Mahāvīra propagated the truth based upon his own self- perception. Lord Pāršva was also a Tīrtharikara. He propagated the truth as per his own self-perception. Truth has infinite sides. But propagation can be only limited and indirect. Lord Pārśva propagated that reality which he felt necessary. Lord Mahāvīra propagated that reality, which he could see, was necessary. The knowledge of truth of both was not different; but propagation was different some times. Śramana Mahāvīra's course of sādhanā was somewhat different than the course of sādhanā of Arhat Pārśva'.

In prehistoric era Arhat Risabha had preached five great yows. In the historical period Arhat Pāršva had preached 'Cāturyāma (four great vows). Non-violence, truth, non-stealing, and non-possession (non-acceptance of outer objects). Śramana Mahāvīra preached five great vows. Non-violence, truth, non-stealing, celibacy, and non-possession. In the city of Śrāvasti, Ācārya Kumār Śramaņa Kešī of Pāršva tradition raised a question to remove doubt of his disciples. 'We have become monks for the same goal, and the same purpose, even then why there is difference between 'Cāturyāma' and five great yows?' Gaṇadhara Gautama, disciple of Mahāvīra, resolving the curiosity said, 'monks of the first Tirthankara are very straight-forward. For them it is difficult to understand and infer code of conduct prescribed for the monks. Monks of the last Tirthankare are devious. For them it is difficult to follow the code of conduct. Monks of the middle 22Tirtharikara are talented. They understand and infer and also follow easily the code of conduct. Therefore there are two kinds of religion.

During Lord Pārśva's time 'sāmāyīka (integral) cāritra' was there. But Lord Mahāvīra originated 'chedopasthāpanīya cāritra ' Cheda' means division. Mahāvīra converted Pāršva's undivided 'sāmāyīka' cāritra into divisional sāmāyīka cāritra that is known as chedopasthāpanīya cāritra.(acceptance of divisionalised great vows at length). Mahāvīra divided cāritra into 13 main divisions. 5 great vows, 5 'samiti'(guardian) vows, and 3 'gupti'(control) vows. It is a strange coincidence that Ācārya Bhikṣu also defined Terāparith based upon these 13 vows.

Mahāvīra, to honour the tradition of Lord Pārśva and to make his own system compatible with it, made two arrangements. In the beginning, undivided (sāmāyīka) cāritra is accepted for a short period. And then arrangement of divisional (chedopasthāpanīya) cāritra for long period. Like that there are some more differences or variations which can be understood by the following table.

Differences between rules of Pārśva's and Mahāvīra's code of conduct:

Achat Pāršva 's rules:

- Cāturyāma (four great vows) 1.
- Sāmāyīka cāritra 2.
- 3.
- 4. 'Sacel'
- 5. 'Pratikraman' when a fault is committed
- 6. 'Audesik food made for a monk acceptable to another monk
- Acceptance of 'rājapind' 7.
- 8. No rule of 'māsakalpa', can stay in the same town for life-time, travelling in monsoon permitted if there were no mud or insect
- No rule of 'paryusana kalpa'
- No 'Parihāra-viśuddhi cāritra.

Śramaņa Mahāvīra's rules:

- 1. Five great vows
- Chedopasthāpanīya cāritra
- Not taking food at night, a subsidiary quality 3. Not taking food at night, a primary quality
 - 4. 'Acel'
 - 5. 'Pratikraman' compulsory twice daily
 - 6. 'Audeśik'- food made for a monk not acceptable to any monk
 - 'rājapirid' not acceptable.
 - 8. rule of 'māsakalpa', can not stay in one place for more than one month
 - Rule of 'payursana kalp'
 - 10. Parihāra-visuddhi cāritra

Like this, the differences are available in 10 'kalpa' (options) between the rules of Lord Pāršva and

those of Lord Mahāvīra. They are divided into two types.1. *Avasthita* (compulsory) and 2. *Anavasthita* (voluntary). During Lord Pārśva's rule, four were 'avasthita' (compulsory) and six were 'Anavasthita' (voluntary).

Avasthita options: 1. Cāturyāma. 2. Not to accept food from host's residence. 3. 'Jyeşṭhha' 4. Seniority (to bow to monks who are senior in monk-hood.

Anavasthita options: 1. Acelatā. 2. Audešika 3. Pratikramaņ 4. Rājapinda 5. Māskalpa 6. Paryusaņa kalp.

For disciples of Lord Mahāvīra, all the options were compulsary. 'Parihārviśuddhi' cāritra was a gift from Lord Mahāvīra. Like chedopasthāpanīya cāritra, this was also a compulsary 'kalpa'. This also happens in 'sthitakalpa' position.

Kumār Śramaṇa Keśī again asked, 'why did Mahāvīra modified the code of dress by non-accepting but rejecting coloured and expensive clothes?' Gautama replied,' Mahāvīra observed that monks are getting attached to dress. To destroy attachment, he made a rule to have no clothes. But if one can not remain without clothes (nude), for him he made a rule to have 'less expensive' and 'less quantity' of clothes. Further Gautama said, 'to maintain the life journey and for the people to identify him as a monk, are the purposes for putting on dress. Dress only a result of a purpose. It is not a tool for emancipation Tools for emancipation are 'Jnan', 'darśan', and 'cāritra' (knowledge, faith, and conduct). Pārśva and Mahāvīra are unanimous on this subject.

After a prolonged dialogue, the minds of Keśī's disciples were put at rest. Keśī himself was very much impressed. He proposed to join Mahāvīra's tīrtha. Gautama initiated Keśī and his disciples in the tradition of five great vows. This was a very big success Gautama. This was not an ordinary event. This was a grand meeting of ancient and modern currents. This was a grand union of great Śramaṇa-leaders.

Pārśvapatyiya śramag (followers of Pārśva)

A mason named Kūpa*naya* lived in *Kumāraka* sociely, he was very rich. Some monks of Pārśva tradition were staying on his premises. Gośālaka saw them. Seeing their multi-colored clothes Gośālaka asked, 'who are you?' They replied, 'We are *śramana*. (monks). We are doing our *sādhanā* under the rule of Lord Pārśva. Gośālaka said, 'how can you be *śraman*, possessing so many clothes and vessels?' He discussed with them for along time. Then he returned to Lord Mahāvīra. He said, 'oh Lord! To-day I have seen monks with possession.' Lord seeing with his 'antarjiūna' (internal knowledge) explained, 'they are not having possession. They are disciples of Lord Pārśva.

Once Lord Mahāvīra came to Rajagṛha from Kauśāmbī. There he stayed at Guṇaśīlak chaitya. GautamaSwāmī went to the city for begging food. He heard from people that, there is a puṣpāVātī caitya out side the city of Tungikā. Lord Pārśva's disciples have come there. Some devotees had gone there and had asked them some questions. Hearing from mouth of many people Gautama was curious. He asked those devotees, 'tell me, what questions did you ask and what answers did you get from the followers of Pārśva?' They replied,' oh Lord! We asked them, what is the fruit of abstention? What is the fruit of penance?'

Pārśvapatyiya śramaṇa had replied,' the fruit of abstention is stoppage of new bondage. The fruit of penance is shedding off of past bondage. Then what is the reason for getting birth in heaven?

Kaliyaputta, replying to this question said, 'Āryo! A soul may take birth in heaven because of his past penance.

Monk Mehil said, 'Āryo! A soul may take birth in heaven because of his Bālance 'karma'.'

Monk Kasyap said, 'a soul may take birth in heaven because his attachment is not destroyed.'

Gautama, collecting particulars of these question-answers, went to Lord Mahāvīra.

He explained the whole situation and asked, 'oh Lord! Are the answers given by the followers of Lord Pārśva correct? Are they capable of giving correct answers? Are they omniscient? Are they scholars and possess special knowledge?' Lord Mahāvīra said, 'Gautama! Answers given by the followers of Pārśva are correct. They are capable of giving correct answers. I would have given the same answers for these questions.'

Lord Mahāvīra, emphatically upheld the appropriate understandings of *śramaṇā*s of Pārśva. After long discussions, disciples of Pārśva joined *'tīrtha* of Mahāvīra. But some monks did not join even upto the end.

Skandak Parivrājaka

There was a *nirgranth* named *Pingal* in the city of *Śrāvasti*. There was an abode for *Parivrājaka*. Its master was Gardabhāli. Skandaka was his disciple. One day Pingal came to the abode. He asked Skandaka, 1. 'Is the universe finite or infinite? 2. Is a living being finite or infinite? 3. Is 'mokṣa' finite or infinite? 4. Is an emancipated soul finite or infinite? 5. Which type of death increases or decreases the cycle of birth and death?' Skandaka could not give answers to these questions. *Pingal* returned without getting any reply. Skandaka heard that Lord Mahāvīra has come to Śrāvasti from kayanjala. He came to Lord Mahāvīra. Lord said,' Skandaka you have an inquiry in your mind. Is universe finite or infinite?' 'oh Lord! I want its elucidation.'

Texplain this from relativity point of view. According to that universe is finite as well as infinite.

'Oh Lord! How is that?'

'From the quantity point of view it is finite because there is only one universe. From the volume point of view it is finite because it is spread over innumerable space points. From the time point of view it is infinite because, universe was, it is, and it will be. From the modes point of view it is infinite, because universe includes infinite modes of color, smell, tastes, and touch. Like that itva (living being), moksa (salvation), and emancipated soul are finite from the point of view of substance and volume, but infinite from point of view of time and modes. Deaths are of two types. 1. 'bāla' (ignorant) death. 2. paṇḍita (learned) death. One who dies bāla death, increases the cycle of birth-death. One who dies paṇḍita death, decreases this cycle.'

Skandaka was enlightened, listening to answers given by Lord Mahāvīra. His unbounded conscious agreed and he got initiated by Mahāvīra. That was 11th year of Mahāvīra's Tīrthankarahood,

Kālodayi etc. Parivrājaka and Madduka

Lord Mahāvīra was staying at Guṇaśīlak caitya in the city of Rājagṛha. Around that caitya many Parivrājaka from other faiths were living. One day Kālodayi, Šailodayi and other Parivrājaka were talking among them. The subject of their discussion was propagation of 'Pañcāstikāya' by Lord Mahāvīra. They said, 'Šramaṇa Mahāvīra has propagated 'Paĥcāstikāya' (five substances) 1.dharmāstikāya 2.adharmāstikāya 3.ākāśāstikāya 4. jīvāstikāya and 5.pudgalāstikāya. He states that, out of these five the first four are 'amūrta' (invisible) and the last pudgalastikāya is 'murta' (visible). How can one believe in this theory of 'astikāya'?

While this discussion was going on at that time they saw *śramaņopāsaka* Madduka going towards Guņaśīlak caitya.

One *Parivrājak* proposed, 'we very well know that Śramaṇa Lord Mahāvīra propagates '*Pañcāstikāya*', still it will be better if we can obtain more information on the subject from Madduka. All agreeing to this proposal went to Madduka. They asked Madduka,' your religious teacher Lord Mahāvīra is propagating the (the theory of) '*Paĥcāstikāya*'. Four of them are 'ajīva' (non-living), one is 'jīva' (living). Four are 'amūrt' and one is 'mūrta'. 'Astikāya' are not tangible. Then how to believe them?'

Madduk replied to them, 'One that is doing action, we can see it and know it. One that is not doing action, we can not see and know.' All *Parivrājaka* said together,' what kind of *śramanopāsaka* are you, who does not see and know 'astikāya?'

(Madduk) said. 'Oh Āyuṣman! Wind is blowing. Do you believe this? Yes. You believe. Can you see wind? No. It is not so (you can not see).

- 'Oh Āyuṣman! Does particles of smell enter your nose? Yes, they do.'
- 'Oh Āyuşman! Can you see them? No you can not.'
- 'Oh Āyuşman! Is there fire in the 'armi' (a wooden drill for kindling fire)? Yes it is there.
- 'Oh Āyuşman! Can you see this fire? No you can not.
- 'Oh Āyuṣman! Are there formations on the side of ocean? Yes. There are. Can you see them? No you can not see them.
- 'Oh Āyuṣman! Can you see the formations existing in the heaven? No you can not see.

'Oh Āyuṣman! Like not seeing the above said things, does not do any harm to their existence. Similarly my or your not knowing or seeing them does not certify non-existent of a thing. If you do not accept existence of a thing by not seeing that thing, then you may not accept existence of a large part of this world. 'Listening to this argument of Madduka all *Parivrājak* became silent. Then he went to Lord Mahavīra. Lord called him and said, 'Madduka! You said, we know and see the one who is doing activity. And we do not know and see the one who not doing activity. This was nicely said. This was said appropriately.' After a few days, Kālodayi went to a large assembly of Lord Mahāvīra. There all his doubts about '*Parīcāstikāya*' were resolved by sermon of Lord Mahāvīra. Kālodayī got initiated by Lord Mahāvīra.

Mahāvīra in Buddha literature

There are repeated mentions of principles of Mahāvīra in 'Piţaka' (the religious books) of Buddha. In all of them attempts are made to degrade the principles and life of Lord Mahāvīra. This may be the style of writing or sectarian psychology. This can be ignored. But some truths about Lord Mahāvīra are well preserved in Piţak literature. These can not be ignored. They are very important. From these we obtain some new information about Mahāvīra's travelling and his principles.

Lord Mahāvīra gave more importance to knowledge than to faith. That time Nigganthha Nātaputra, with his big group had reached the town of *Macchikasand*. There, a 'gṛhapati' named Citta heard about it. He, with some followers went to Nigganthha Nātaputra; inquired about their well being and set there.

Nigganthha Nātaputra asked grhapati Citta, 'Grihapati! Do you believe that, Šramaņa Gautama can meditate and reach a state of 'no-contemplation' and 'no thought? Does his contemplation and thinking stop?

'Sir! I do not believe by faith that he reaches a state of 'no-contemplation' and 'no-thought' by meditation.' On this Niggantha looking at his group said, 'All of you listen to this. How straightforward is grihapati Citra, how righteous and faultiess he is! To stop contemplation and thinking is like preventing air by a net.

'Sir! What is greater, knowledge or faith?'

'Oh grhapati! Knowledge is greater than faith.'

'Sir! When I wish, I travel after obtaining first-meditation. I travel after obtaining second-meditation, third-meditation, and fourth-meditation.

'Sir! I have myself known and seen thus. In such condition, why should I know through faith of any *Brāhmaṇ* or *Śramaṇa* that no-contemplation and no-thinking is possible. And that contemplation and thinking can be stopped.' Listening to this talk of Citta, Nigganthha Nātaputra told his group, 'You all look here. How crooked is grihapati Citta? How wicked and vile is he?'

'Sir! Just now you said, how much straightforward, righteous and faultless is Citta! And now you are saying he is crooked wicked and wile.

'Sir! If your first statement is correct then your second statement is false, and if your second statement is correct then your first statement is false.'

Lord Mahāvīra propagated that 'loka' (universe) was finite, and 'Aloka' (non-universe or beyond universe) was infinite. This is corroborated by Pitak a literature.

Two 'Lokāyatika' brāhaman came to Lord Mahāvīra and asked, 'Sir! Pūrankaṣyapa is omniscient, omni-seer and master of complete knowledge and perception. He believes that, even while walking, standing, sleeping and awakening, he has perpetual presence of 'jhān-darśan. He can see and know infinite universe with infinite knowledge. 'Sir! Nigganthha Nātaputra is also saying like that. He is also saying that, he knows and sees with his infinite knowledge, finite 'loka' and infinite 'aloka'. 'Oh Gautama! Out of these two contradicting statements, which is true and which is false?'

Observing similarity of philosophy of life of Buddha and Mahāvīra, some scholars started believing that they were one person only. Prof. Webar has repudiated this belief, but he came to a conclusion Jaina religion is a branch of Buddha religion.

Dr. Herman Jacobi repudiated both these beliefs and established that Jaina religion is not only independent of Buddha religion but also it is much ancient than Buddha religion.

QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1. Describe a live picture of *mahātapasvī* (great penancior) *dhyānayogī* Mahāvīra. Prove that Mahāvīra was a wonderful child.
- 2. Describe any three occasions happened during Śramana Mahāvīra's sādhanā period.
- 3. What were experimental \practical forms of theories given by Lord Mahāvīra/ OR Give some examples extensive effectiveness of personality management of Lord Mahāvīra.

Subjective Questions:

- 1. What dreams were seen by mother Triśalā?
- What resolution did Maravīra make during pregnancy?
- 3. What were other names of Mahāvīra?
- 4. What was the meaning of his fourth dream as told to Utpal by Mahāvīra?
- Why did Mahāvīra praise Madduka?
- 6. What were the differences between the rulings of Tīrthańkara Pārśva and Tīrthańkara Mahāvīra?

3. Fill in the blanks:

-60	was the chief follower of Mahāvīra's revolution of 'less accumulation'
2.\	Occurrence of is indication of abolition of slavery.
3.	Vardhamāna was playing game in Pramadavan.
4.	Mahāvīra told Gautama,Šāla and Gāgalī have become
5.	Subject of discussion among Kālodayī and other Parivrājaka was propagated by Mahāvīra.
6.	Mahāvīra's first monsoon stay was at and the last was at .

LESSON-3 SECTION 'A'

JAINA HISTORY: THE OTHER TĪRTHIK IDEOLOGIES IN THE PERIOD OF LORD MAHĀVĪRA

Contemporary Philosophical Schools in Mahāvīra's Time

The age of Mahāvīra was the one of religious creeds and rites and rituals. The contemporty conditions gave birth to a large number of philosophical schools, having divierce views and dogmas. Acording to the Buddhist sources, there were 63 such schools in the Sramana tradition. The Jaina sources refer to 363 religious schools prevailing in India at the time of Mahāvīra. They are called pāṣanḍa-heretical schools. Actually all these were briefly grouped under four principal schools viz.

- 1. Kriyāvāda (Activism) Believer in soul, rebirth, karma etc.
- Akriyāvāda (Non-actionism) Non-believer in sould, rebirth, karma, etc.
- Vinayavāda (Devotionism) Absolutistic stress on humbleness on devotion.
- 4. Ajĥānavāda (Ignoranism)-Ignorance in believed to be beneficial the doctrine of ignorance.

The Jaina texts mention 180, 84, 67 and 32 types of Kriyāvāda, Akriyāvāda, Ajhānavāda and Vinayavāda $respectively. \ The \ chapter \ XII \ of \ \textit{Sutrakritainga Sutra} \ has elaborately \ given \ the \ details \ of \ these \ four \ schools. They$ Stitute Deen are

- 1. Verses 11-22-Krivāvāda
- 2. Verses 5-10- Akriyāvāda
- 3. Verses 2-3-Aiñānavāda
- 4. Verses 4-Vinayvāda
- 1. Actionism

The doctrine of activionism has the soul at its nucleus.

- 1. The Soul exists
- 2. It takes rebirth
- 3. The Soul is the door of all karma
- 4. It is the endurer of its own
- 5. There exist emancipation karma (of Soul).
- Good karma bears good fruit.
- 7. Evil karma bears evil fruit.

This is in nutshell the main propositions of kriyāvāda. We may deduce the following four conclusious thereof:

- 1. Reality of the soul and the universe is accepted.
- Relativity of eternality and transience is accepted.
- 3. Doctrine of rebirth is accepted.
- Doctrine of self-action is accepted.

The period of Lord Mahāvīra was compact with so many religious doctrines and rituals. According to the Buddhist Literature some sixty three Sramana sects were there at that time. Mention of three hundred sixty three religious doctrines is found in the Jaina Literature. This is a detailed account of divisions and subdivisions. All the sects, in short, can be brought together into four classes. Lord Mahāvīra has described them as the four pious meetings of the gods, monks, male and female laities.

1.0 Kriyā vāda

Kriyāvāda and Non-Kriyāvāda have been pondered over keeping the soul in the centre as the main point. It was said that there is an existance of soul, it is the doer of the karma and the consumer of the fruits of the karmās and it attains salvation. The fruits of good deeds are good and those of evil deeds are bad. This is the complete sign of Kriyāvāda.

Four meanings are brought out of Kriyāvāda:-

- 1. Existantialism:-Acceptance of the soul and the world.
- 2. The theory of righteousness:-Acceptance of both the religions-eternal and transitory-syādvād and riversit anekāntvād.
 - 3. The theory of rebirth.
 - 4. The theory of the self-doing the deeds.

All the doctrines that believed in the existance of soul etc. and accepted the self-doing the deeds were included in Kriyāvāda. Although the followers of Kriyāvāda accepted the existance of soul, they were not unarimous regarding its form. Some regard it as omnipresent, the others don't think it to be so. Some regard it as concrete and some as abstract. Some regard it as big as a thumb, while some regard it as a grain of rice. Some regard it as the flame of the lamp that is burning in the heart. According to Jaina Philosophy, the soul has a conscious form, keeps its resultant form intact, is the door and the consumer, getting transformed into various stages, is the collector of good and evil deeds with its own truthful and untruthful tendencies, is the consumer of the fruits of the karmās, having its own measure-neither as small as an atom nor omnipresent, but of the medium measure.

Ācārya Akalanka has mentioned some of the *Ācāryās* of *Kriyāvāda-*Marici Kumār, Ulooka, Kapil, Gārgya, Vyaghrabhuti, Vadvali, Mathara, Modgalyāyanā etc.

For a Jaina monk, there is a provision of a resolution that is to be made everyday -I renounce Non-kriya and accept the initiation of briva-

1.1 Non-Krivāvāda

The moral devotion and obligation of the *Non-Kriyāvādi* philosophers was based on the utility of the present. They didn't regard soul as an element that gets re-born. So they had no devotion for religion. They believed that there was no difference in the fruits of good deeds and evil deeds. The fruit of a good deed is not good. Similarly the fruit of an evil deed is not bad. Both good deed and sin are devoid of fruit. On the basis of nāsti, the following four things are the resultants of Non-Kriyāvāda:-

- 1. Rejection (non-acceptance) of the soul.
- 2. Rejection (non-acceptance) of the theory of the self, doing the deeds.
- 3. Rejection (non-acceptance) of the karma.
- 4. Rejection (non-acceptance) of the theory of re-birth.

A Non-Kriyāvādi has been described as nāstikvādi, nāstik pragya and nastik rista.

Ācārya Akalańka has mentioned the names of some of the prominent Ācāryās of Non-Kriyāvāda-Kokval, Kanthe-Viddhi, Kauśika, Harişa-Maśruman, Kapil, Romaśa, Harit, Aśwamud, Aśwālayan etc.

According to Sārkhya philosophy, the basis of kriyā is Nature. As puruṣa has not been considered as the doer of the deed, the Sārkhya philosophy has been included into Non-Kriyāvāda. According to the Vaiśeṣikās, atoms are the basic ingredients of the world. Different things are formed from the combination of different kinds of atoms. It is just as a potter creates his own world of different things with different ingredients such as soil and earth etc. He gives the fruits to the Jeevās according to their karmās. The fruits of the karmās have nothing to do with the soul. Considering from this point of view, the Vaiśeṣhika philosophy has also been included into the catagory of Non-Kriyāvāda.

1.2 The Theory of Ignorance

The basis of this philosophic theory is Ignorance. The followers of this theory believe that knowledge is the root cause of all the problems, therefore it is better to be ignorant. What is the use of knowledge? Conduct requires efforts. Preservance of conduct is the essence of knowledge. Heaven and salvation are gained from good conduct and penance. A knowledgeable person is not as happy as an ignorant man.

People got inclined towards the theory of Ignorance due to many reasons-

- 1. A person knows very well good as good and evil as evil. Yet he cannot accept goodness and reject evil. He thinks what good is knowledge. This type of mentality produced the feelings of disappointement in the heart of a man. We cannot get rid of evil even though, we know evil very well and we cannot follow the path of goodness even though we know very well what good is. Then what is the utility of knowing? This thinking gave birth to the theory of Ignorance.
- 2. Some people believed that only that, which is perceived through our senses, is true. We don't know if someone has perceived some transcendental object. Transcendental knowledge, therefore, is useless.
- 3. Some people did not think it to be worth while to be indifferent to the pleasures that are available in this birth and to run after the other world after rebirth. They thought it not wise to run after what is unknown and unavailable, leaving what is easily available. They preferred analyzing the present to looking back to the past or looking forward to the future. For this, they thought the knowledge perceived through the senses to be sufficient. They ignored the transcendental knowledge and went for ignorance.

An account of sixty-seven kinds of ignorance is found. Ācārya Akalanka has mentioned some of the Ācāryās of the theory of Ignorance-sākalya, vaškal, Kudhumi, Satyamugri, Narayan, Kath, Madhyandini, Moud, Pepplad, Badrayan etc.

1.3 The theory of Humility

The basis of this theory is humility. The followers of this theory gave the greatest importance to the giving up of ego and to devotion and total surrender. Ego, in their opinion, was the root cause of all the troubles. They were of the opinion that we should not condemn any sect or house-holder. We should be humble and polite to all. Thirty two kinds of the followers of this theory have been described. Some of the prominent $\bar{A}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}s$ of this theory are-Vasistha, Parāśarā, Vālmikī, Vyās, Ilāputra and Satyadatta etc. The initiations like 'danama', 'panama' have been described as belonging to this theory. In 'Bhagwatī Sūtra', the form of these initiations has been indicated.

Once there lived Tāmali Gathāpati in the city of *Tāmraplipti* (Tamralipti). He had undergone the initiation 'panama'. After getting initiated that *Tāmali* saluted and expressed his respect to Indra, Skand, Rudra, Šiva,

Vaiśraman, Durgā, Cāmunda (the goddesses) and to the king, Prince, Mandvika, relatives, nobles, generals, charioteers, a cāridāla, a crow or a dog, wherever he happened to see them. If he happened to see them at a high place, he greeted and saluted them there. If he happened to see them at a lower place, he did the same there.

Pūrana Gāthāpati undertook the initiation 'danama'. After getting initiated, he went for begging food, taking with him a wooden pot, having four parts. He gave the food that was put into the first part to the passers by. He gave the food that fell into the second part to dogs and crows. He gave the food that fell into the third part to fishes and crocodiles. He himself took the food that fell into the fourth part.

The word 'Humility' here requires to be considered. Its meaning should be conduct. Just as the followers of the theory of knowledge believed that fulfilment and accomplishment can be attained only through knowledge, similarly the followers of the theory of conduct laid emphasis on conduct. Both of these views, being onesided, fall into the catagory of false vision. Jaina religion has been said to be a religion giving value to humility. In Jaina literature the word 'humility' has been used to convery the meaning of conduct. The theory of Humility is only a part of the theory of conduct.

Lord Mahāvīra, after having analyzed all the four theories, adopted the theory of Kriyāvāda. His doing so was not from one-sided point of view. His philosophy, therefore may be termed as Relative Kriyāvāda.

In the period of Lord Mahāvīra, there were more than forty sects of the Śramans. Five of them were te Deemed very influential-

- 1. Nirgranth-The ruling of Lord Mahāvīra.
- Šākva-The ruling of Buddha.
- 3. Aajīvaka-The ruling of Makhali Gośālaka.
- Garrika-The Tāpas ruling.
- Parivrājak-The Sārkhya ruling.

In the Boddha literature, there is a mention of six sects of Śramans and other Ācāryās-

- 1. Non-Kriyāvāda-Ācārya Pooran Kaśyapa.
- The theory of Destiny-Makkhali Gosal.
- Uchaidvād-Ajit Keškambli.
- 4. Anyonyavād-Pakucha Kātyāyan.
- 5. Cāturyām Samvarvād-Nirgranth Gyātputra.
- Viksepvād-Sanjay Velatthiputra.

Pūraņa. Kašyap-Non-Kriyāvāda

Pūraņa Kasyap was known as 'complete', 'perfect' as he was full of experiences. He had gained so many experiences. He was a Brāhmina by caste, so he was called 'Kasyapa'. He lived naked, without any clothes. He had eighty thousand followers. He was of the opinion that someone did something or got it done, cut something or got it cut, gave trouble to someone or got someone to do so, grieved over something or made some one do so, suffered himself or made someone suffer, got frightened himself or frightened someone else, murdered someone, committed theft or dacoity, robbed someone, had sexual intercourse with women other than his wife, told a lie, whatever he might have done, no sin would touch him. If someone kills all the creatures of the world with a sharp weapon, even then no sin will touch him. On the contrary, if someone makes charity on the northern bank of the river Ganga or gets someone do so, performs a *yajĥa* or gets it performed by someone, even then he will not have any fruit of his so-called good deeds. One does not get the fruits of his good deeds whatever he may do-Charity, observance of religion and celebacy, self-control or truthfulness. This theory of Pūraṇa Kaṣyap is known as *Non-Kriyāvāda*.

2. **Two Streams:-***Kriyāvādi* and *Non-Kriyāvādi* (*Atmavādā* and *Anātmvādā*)-Each and every creature possesses knowledge although to different extents. Man is the best of the creatures. He has attained a greater intellectual development. The function of intellect is to think, to understand and to analyzise the elements. Out of his thinking emerged two streams of thought-*Kriyāvāda* and *Non-Kriyāvāda*.

The people believing in soul, *karma*, re-birth and emancipation were called '*Kriyāvādi*'. The followers of *Kriyāvāda* preached self-control and to lead a virtuous life. But the believers of *Non-Kriyāvāda* said that to lead a happy and comfortable life was the ultimate goal of life. The followers of *Kriyāvāda* wrote sentences like this-'To bear physical pains with equanimity is the greatest fruit of life. The well-being of the self can be attained only by bearing pains and difficulties patiently.' The followers of *Non*-Kriayavad believed that so long as we live, we should live happily, no matter we have even to borrow to lead a happy life.

The followers of *Kriyāvāda* said, 'The day or night that is gone, is gone for ever; it never comes back. The days and the nights of the person who does evil deeds are futile whereas the days and the nights of the person who does virtuous deeds are fruitful. We should, therefore, not be cateless even for a moment in doing a virtuous deed. This life is but transitory, like the drop of snow on the edge of a leaf of grass. If you waste this life, you will rarely get human life even after a very long time. The fixits of the *karmās* are very complex. So, try to understand and realize. Why don't you realize it? You will not get this power of discrimination and real knowledge time and again. The night that is spent, is lost for ever, it never comes back. So is the case with human life. Persue the path of virtuous deeds so long as you don't suffer from the ailments of old age, so long as you are not besiezed by diseases, your senses don't grow weak. If you don't do so, you will have to repent at the time of death like the charioteer who does not go on the smooth highway and takes a rough path, as a result of which the axis of his chariot gets broken and he has to suffer and repent.'

The followers of *Non-Kriyāvāda* said, 'It is the greatest folly that people run after the unseen and invisible pleasures, leaving the pleasures that are visible and available. These pleasures of sex and wealth are in our hands, are visible and in our reach. Nobody knows what will happen in future. Who has seen the other world? We don't even know whether the other world exists. A majority of people are busy, enjoying the worldly pleasures, then why should we not do so? What will come to others, will come to us, so why to bother? O dear, there is nothing to worry, just eat, drink and be merry. Whatever you enjoy, is yours. You will get nothing after death. Some people misguide the public by giving the accounts of the sufferings in the other world. This is illogical.'

In the ideology of *Kriyāvāda*, things became clear. The people learnt self-restraint and self-control. They adopted penance and renunciation in their lives.

In the ideology of *Non-Kriyāvāda*, things remained vague. The people turned to the worldly and material pleasures.

The followers of *Kriyāvāda* said, 'Every good or evil deed bears fruit. Good deeds have good fruits and evil deeds have evil fruits. Beings are born in the other world with their virtuous or evil *karmās*. One gets emancipation and extreme pleasure at the decay of both good and evil *karmās*.'

The result was that the people got interested in religion and in doing good deeds. They gave importance to lesser desires, lesser beginnings and lesser possessions. A person who followed the principles of non-

violence, truthfulness, celebacy, non-possession and not stealing, came to be regarded as a great and a noble man.

The followers of *Non-Kriyāvāda* said, 'Good deeds and evil deeds yield no fruits. Good deeds do not give good fruits and evil deeds don't yield evil fruits. The soul is not born in the other world.'

The result of this idealogy was that the people got confused. Doubts increased. The worldly desires got stronger. The feelings of greater desires, greater beginnings and greater possession possessed the people.

The insight of the followers of *Kriyāvāda* is fixed on the idea that one has to bear the fruits of one's deeds. He knows that he will have to bear the fruits of his *karma*, if not in this world, then in the other world. There is no escape. It is, therefore, better to avoid, as far as possible, the evil deeds. A person having such an insinght is not frightened and worried even at the time of death. He welcomes death with pleasure.

The view point of the follower of *Non-Kriyāvāda* is based on the idea that these pleasures are in his hands, in his reach. He thinks that the more he enjoys these worldly pleasures, the better. Nothing is to be gained after death. Thus, his ultimate aim is to enjoy the worldly pleasures. He gets indifferent to the bonds of *Karmās* and doesn't hesitate in meaningful or meaningless killing of the static or the moving creatures. When he falls a prey to a disease, he remembers his *karmās* and repents. He is frightened of the other world. It has been experienced that great atheists begin to tremble at the time of death or when they suffer from a fatal disease. They give up all atheism and become theists. When the follower of *Non-Kriyāvāda* realizes that the end of his life is near at hand, he begins to think, 'I have heard about hell where the evil-doers have to go, where the ignorant and cruel persons have to suffer unbearable tortures. Is it true? If it is so, what shall happen to me?' Thus he dies in a state of suspense and confusion.

The representation of *Kriyāvāda* was not to have doubte in the existance of soul. As it is abstract, it is eternal and everlasting. Abstract matterns are indivisible and everlasting. In spite of being eternal, the soul is bound with the faults like ignorance, that are the creations of the being itself. This bondage is the cause of this world (birth and death).

The essance of $Non-Kriy\bar{a}v\bar{a}da$ was that this world is confined to the limits of visibility. There are only five elements in this world-earth, water, fire, alread sky. By their combination, conscious-being or soul is born. When the elements are destroyed, the soul is also destroyed. Soul is not something independent. Just as fire is produced from wood, ghee is produced from milk and oil is produced from oil-seeds, similarly, ' $J\bar{v}a$ ' is produced from the body, having the five elements. When the body is destroyed, nothing like the soul remains there.

Thus, the currents that come out of the two streams, are there before us. We should test them from the beginning to the end, because they not only form a philosophical outlook, but our personal, social, national and religious lives also are based on their foundation. The path of life of a follower of *Kriyāvāda* and that of *Non*-kriyavad cannot be one and the same. Before doing anything, the former will always think of self-purification whereas the latter does not feel even the need to bother about it. Today we find that many of the followers of *Kriyāvāda* have also taken to the thinking of violence. They have forgotten the fact that life is transitory and have indulged in great beginnings and great possessions. In the practical life it is getting difficult to find out as to who is a follower of *Kriyāvāda* and who is a follower of *Non-Kriyāvāda*.

There is no wonder if the followers of *Non-Kriyāvāda* don't think of the future that is very far. But if the followers of *Kriyāvāda* forget the soul and don't think of the pros and cons, they are *Kriyāvādi* only in name and not in the real sense of the word. To think of future, of the things to come doesn't mean that we should be blind to the present. To think of future is to improve our present. Only the present meditation and devotion of today can make our future happy. To neglect self-purification, getting indulged in sexual and worldly pleasures and lust is worse than committing suicide for a *Kriyāvādi*. He should do self-analysis.

Evaluating the research, Sir Oliver Lodge, a member of the Council for the research of soul and the other world, has written, 'Running after the physical and material knowledge, we should not forget the transcendental knowledge, relating to the next world. The conscious being has no quality of itself, but it has an independent existance that exhibits itself. There is certainly something in all the living beings that does not end with the end of the body. It has now become absolutely necessary to find out the rules that relate to physical and transcendental beings.'

Why Soul?

The followers of *Non-Kriyāvāda* put up a question, 'How can we accept a thing that is not visible, not to be seen? The soul, the senses and the mind are not visible. Then how can they be accepted?' The followers of *Kriyāvāda* say, 'It is not the visibility of the senses and the mind that is the only means to know the matters and the substances. There are other means too like the things that have been tested by experience, the things perceived and experienced by the yogis and the *Āgamās*, What can be known by means of the senses and the mind? Their capacity and power is limited. By means of them we cannot know even about our forefathers who had been there three or four generations ago. Should their existance then be denied? The senses can know only the touch, taste, smell and form, that are material objects. Mind is the follower of the senses. It knows and recognizes and thinks about only the materials recognized by the senses. It comes to know the abstract things too through the medium of concrete things. It is, therefore, not proper to depend upon the senses and the mind in order to know all the objects inbetween. The soul is not word, form, taste, smell and touch. It is a formless entity.

Formless entities cannot be grasped by means of the sense. Soul is abstract. The existance of soul cannot be denied due to this fact simply for the reason that it cannot be grasped by means of the senses. Who and when has come to know the formless sky? Leave aside the matter of abstract objects. Even atoms and the atomic substances that have got forms, cannot be known by means of senses, so there is no point in accepting the objects that are visible as the only proof. In nutshell, according to Anātmavādā, as soul is not visible to senses and to mind, so it simply does not exist. According to spiritualism, soul is not visible to senses and to mind, so it does not exist. To think like that is not reasonable. As soul is abstract, it simply cannot be visible to senses and to mind.

3. The theroy of destiny (Fatalism): The followers of this theory believe neither in Kriyāvāda nor in Non-Kriyāvāda. Their philosophy is like this, 'Some people propound kriyā and some propound non-kriyā. Both of them are alike. The person who thinks, 'Ido' does nothing and the person who thinks, 'Ido' too does nothing. Everything is decided by fate. The whole of the universe-dynamic or static-is under fate or destiny. The ignorant man thinks there is some reason behind it. He thinks, 'I am getting unhappy, I am grieving, I am getting annoyed, I am getting weak, I am suffering. I have done all this. I am the doer of all these things. The other man who is getting unhappy, who is grieving, getting annoyed and weak, and is suffering, he is the doer of all his deeds.' Thus a man, out of ignorance, thinks himself to be the cause of his griefs and the other person the cause of his griefs:-

I (a fatzlist) say, 'All the creatures mobile or immobile in all the four directions-east, west, north and south, get all the physical pains and sufferings, different stages, (childhood, young age, adulthood), power of discrimination and regulations and arrangements because of destiny (fate). Thus they are all destined to be like what they are. In *Bhagwatī* (śatak 15) we get a detailed account of the principles of Gośālak, the fatalist.

Once Lord Mahāvīra was staying at the place where Saddālputta made pots. At that time Saddālputta was baking the pots in the sun. Lord Mahāvīra asked, 'Saddālputta, please tell me how these pots are made.' Saddālputta replied, 'O Lord, first of all we bring the earth, then we mix water in it and crush it. Then we mix some ash in it. Then we make a lump of earth and put it on the wheel. In this way the pots are made.' Lord

Mahāvīra said, 'Saddālputta, kindly tell me whether these pots are made from rise, action, strength, energy, manliness and valour or from fall (decline), lack of action, lack of strength, lack of energy, lack of manliness and lack of valour. Saddālputta replied, 'O Lord, these are made from fall (decline), lack of action, lack of strength, lack of energy, lack of manliness and lack of energy. Fall (decline), action, strength, energy, manliness and valour have got no value. They have nothing to do. Everything is destined.'

Lord Mahāvīra said, 'What will you do if someone breaks these pots or indulges in sexual intercourse with Agrimitra?'

Saddālputta-'I will curse him, strike him and kill him.' Lord Mahāvīra said, 'If everything is predestined, why should you do so for someone breaking your pots or for having sexual intercourse with Agrimitra?'

Hearing these words of the Lord, Saddalputta got enlightened and took to Anuvrat, meant for the householders.

Fatalists believe that a thing that has not been done, does not bear any fruit. There is definitely an element of doing behind whatever a man enjoys, but that doing is not of the man. If it is the doing of a man, if he is free to do any action, he will do everything according to his wish and as desired by him. Why will then he do a thing that is not desirable to him? But this is not to be seen. A man has to do many undersirable things too. This fact proves that everything is done by destiny, everything is destined.

In Boddha literature, we get the explanation of fatalism like this-"There is no cause, no effort behind the suffering of the people. They suffer without any cause or effort. There is no cause, no idea behind the purification of the people. They get purified without any cause or idea. There is nothing like the power of self, the power of others, manliness, strength, energy or potency. All the elements, creatures, beings and $J\bar{v}as$ are helpless, devoid of strength and energy. The are all at the mercy of destiny (fate). They experience joy and sorrow in six catagories."

In this modified world, everything is measured. There is no increase or decrease, no rise or fall. Just as the ball of thread, when thrown, gets open and falls down, similarly both the foolish and the wise will bring their sorrows to an end by the cycle of birth and rebirth. The sorrows of all the people come to an end only after the cycle of eighty lacs of $mah\bar{a}kalp\bar{a}s$. This doctrine of Makkhali Goshal was known as the doctrine of purification. This may also be called as fatalism. It is also described as the doctrine of $\bar{A}j\bar{t}vak$. $\bar{A}j\bar{t}vak$ was an influential sect in Sramana tradition. Gosālaka was its $\bar{A}c\bar{a}rya$. The monks of this sect lived nude. They performed the penance of the five tires. They also performed many other severe penances. They also observed the devotion of severe $\bar{a}san\bar{a}s$. Abstinence from delicacies and seclusion from taste-these two were the signs of the vow of being indifferent to taste of the $\bar{A}j\bar{t}vakas$. The $\bar{A}j\bar{t}vak$ Sramans have instructions to observe four types of self-control, remunciation and humility. Being monks they were revered in the society. The people asked them about causes, omens and the interpretation of dreams.

In *Bhagwatī* we get a brief account of the ideology and the conduct of the $\bar{A}j\bar{t}vak$ worshippers. It is like this- The followers of $\bar{A}j\bar{t}vak$ regard Arihant as a deity, serve their parents, do not eat the fruits of Gular, Bar, Plum, Fig and Pilankhu (a kind of tree), do not torture bullocks, do not pierce their ears and nose and do not do anything that causes violence to moving creatures.

The Boddha philosophy

The Boddha religion came into existance as a revolution in the field of conduct. It prohibited both the extremes of renunciation and enjoyment and preached a middle path. It propounded the form of religion that was for the benefit and happiness of a majority of people.

The Boddha religion became very popular. Not that there were no seeds of philosophy in the sermons of Lord Buddha but the philosophical development of the Boddha religion took place only after Buddha. The Boddha monks went ahead in the fields of thinking and meditation. Upto the period of Emperor Aśoka, the Boddha religion was divided into eighteen groups because of differences on one or more than one aspects.

The period of Buddha was the period of philosophic doctrines. So many doctrines such as Fatalism, Theism and the doctrine of Free Will etc. were prevalent at that time. They were very much in vogue in their respective areas in the world of philosophy.

Fatalism presumed-Good or evil, well-being or Non-well-being, joy or sorrow, whatever happens, is predestined. No one is capable of bringing about any change in them. Lord Buddha did not find this doctrine rational because if it is so, there is no value of a man's doing or endeavours. The theists accepted the existance of a force that is beyond this world and that controls and conducts every activity in the universe. Buddha did not accept this doctrine either.

The thinking of Buddha was that if these doctrines are accepted, there will remain no value and importance of a man's labour and doing. Even if the utility of labour is accepted, there shall be no logical basis for its fruit-giving faculty. Whatever a man does there will always be the possibility of reversion of the fruit. Responsibility will always be doubtful. Consequently, amidst all these doctrines, he propound a new philosophic doctrine. According to him, the whole universe-material or conscious-is based on the theory of relative causation. He said, the other thing is caused when somehting is felt or obtained. In other words, it can be said that all the substances in the world are bound in the series of cause and effect. There is some cause, therefore, there is some effect. This is a universal law. There is no effect without the existence, feeling or obtaining of the cause. This doctrine of Buddha came to be known as the theory of *pratity asamutpād*.

The verbal meaning of this doctrine is that there is some effect when there is a feeling or obtaining. When something happens, this will be the effect or result. Buddha said, 'One who knows the theory of pratity as a mutpād knows religion. One who knows religion, knows this doctrine.' He said, 'This doctrine is universal. It is beyond place, period or time. Present past or future do not break it. This theory applies to all the three of them alike.' There are supposed to be twelve parts of this doctrine. They have been described as the primary causes too. They are produced because of one another respectively. This chain of production is said to be the cycle of the world.

The primary causes or the twelve parts are as follows:-

1. Ignorance, 2. Culture, 3. Science, 4. Name-form, 5. Ṣaḍāyatan, 6. Touch, 7. Pain, 8. Thirst, 9. Ingredient, 10. The world, 11 Caste, 12. Old age-Death, 13. Atheism

Buddha strongly contradicted the theory of soul. The essence of his preaching was-There is no independent existance of soul. Even the followers of the theory of soul do not know what its form is like. Even then it is a wonder that people do different kinds of things for the welfare of soul, for pleasure and for benefit and even suffer many difficulties. It is the same thing as a person loves the most beautiful woman of the republic but knows not who that beauty is, where she is, what qualities she possesses, of what sort her figure is, what her complexion is like and to which name and community she is related. That beauty and the love and possession of that peron-everythings seem to be imaginary, a mere fantasy.

To believe in the theory of soul is like standing on the cross-roads and trying to prepare steps to enter the building that exists nowhere. What else is it if not foolishness? So many rituals and penances are performed by the believers of the theory of soul. To cosider soul as something that feels and experiences and to consider the subject of experience as eternal, universal and unchangeable is simply childish. It is nothing but ignorance.

The Buddhists call themselves as the non-believers in the theory fo soul. They don't regard the existance of soul as an objective truth, they regard it as merely imaginary. The perceptions that are produced and destroyed every moment, of the science (consciousenss) and the form (physical element, body) are sufficient for the journey of this world. There is no eternal soul beyond them. In spite of not believing in the theory of soul, the Buddhists believe in *karma*, re-birth and emancipation. Being questioned about soul, the Buddhists have remained silent. On being asked the reason, Buddha says, 'If I say there is soul, the people come to believe in eternity; If I say there is no soul, people become the believers of *Ucchaidvad*. Therefore for the solution of both of these problems, I remain silent.' Nāgārjun writes at one place, 'Buddha has said that there is soul, he has also said that there is no soul; and Buddha has preached neither about the existance, nor about the non-existance of soul.'

What soul is, from where it has come and where it will go-regarding these questions as impractical, Buddha mainly preached about sorrow and how to get rid of it. He said, 'We must think of healing the wound of the person who has been hit with an arrow; It is useless to discuss from where the arrow came and who hit it.'

According to the Boddha pholosophy soul is the collection of five parts-form pain, consciousness, culture and science. A brief interpretation of them is given below:-

Form:-It indicates body and senses that are related with sensual pleasures

Science:-The feeling of ego in oneself, sensibility and the perception of their respective sensual pleasures by the senses is said to be science.

Pain:-The feeling of pleasure by the touch, Observation, tasts and drink of a favourite or dear object and the feeling of sorrow by the touch, Observation, taste and drink of an unfavourable object; and the feeling of neither joy nor sorrow by the touch, Observation, taste and drink of either the favourable or the unfavourable object, is said to be pain.

Consciousness:-Grasping of the objects exactly as they are on the basis of the pain caused by their being favourable or unfavourable; and the naming of the objects on the basis of their merits or demerits is known as consciousness. This is the purestform.

According to the Boddha philosophy, as has been explained above, there is no separate form or existance of soul, apart from the collection of the five parts.

5. Ucchaidvāda

Ajit Keśkamblī used to use a blanket made of hair. That is why he was known as 'Keśkamblī' (One who uses a blanket made of hair). According to Mr. F.L. Woodward, this blanket was made of the human hair. The ideology of Keskamblī was like that of the *Lokāyatik* philosophy. Some scholars are now beginning to think that he was the propounder of the atheist philosophy in India. It seems that Brahaspati has given a developed and polished form to his ideas.

The philosophic ideology of Ajit Keskamblī is given below:-

There is ' $j\bar{t}va$ ' above the sole of the foot and below the hair on the head and slanting upto the skin-body is $j\bar{t}va$. This is total. A creature lives so long as it lives. When it dies, the creature also dies. So long as there is body, there is the $j\bar{t}va$. The $j\bar{t}va$ does not live when the body is destroyed. There is life so long as there is body. When the body gets deformed, the other people carry it away to burn. When burnt in fire, its bones get pigeon-coloured. Converting a bier into an object having five legs, all the four persons bearing the bier, come back to the village. Thus, there is no existance of $j\bar{t}va$ apart from the body. There are no sensations apart from the body.

The ideology of the people who think that the body and the *jīva* are two different entities is not correct because they do not know whether the soul is big or small, circular or round, triangular or having four or six angles, black or blue, red or yellow or white, has a good or a foul smell, pungert or sour, astringent or sweet, harsh or soft, heavy or light, cold or hot, smooth or rough. Soul cannot be perceived in any form. Thus, there is no sensation or communication of soul apart from the body.

The persons who believe that the jīva and the body are two different entities are not correct because they do not realize it like this-like a person who shows the sword, drawing it out of the sheath and says, 'O dear! This is the sword and this is the sheath', But there is no one who shows the soul, taking it out of the body and may say, 'Look dear! this is the soul and this is the body'. Like a person who brings the pole out of the long fibre of which ropes are made and says, 'Just see, this is the pole and this is the fibre.' But there is no one who may take the soul out of the body and may say, 'Just see, this is the soul and this is the body.' Like a person who takes the bone out of the flesh and says, 'Just see, this is the bone and this is flesh.' But there is no one who may take the soul out of the body and may say, 'Just see, this is the soul and this is the body.' Like a person who puts the emblic myrobālan in his palm and says, 'Just see, this is the emblic myrobālan and this is the palm. But there is no one who may take the soul out of the body and may say, Just see, this is the soul and this is the body. Like a person who draws butter out of ourd and says, 'Just see, this is the butter and this is the curd. But there is no one who may take the soul out of the body and may say, Just see, this is the soul and this is the body.' Like a person who draws oil from the oil-seeds and says, 'This is the oil and these are the oilseeds.' But there is no one who may take the soul out of the body and may say, 'Just see, this is the soul and this is the body. 'Like a person who draws juice from a sugar cane and says,' This is the juice and this is the rind. But there is no one who may take the soul out of the body and may say, Just see, this is the soul and this is the body.' Like a person who produces fire from the wood and says, 'This is the fire and this is the wood.' But there is no one who may take the soul out of the body and may say, 'Just see, this is the soul and this is the body. Thus, there is no existance of the jīva apart from the body, there is no perception of the soul apart from the body.

In Jaina literature there is a mention of a theory according to which although the *jīva* and the soul are different, yet they are treated as the same, but no mention of its propounder is found. In Boddha literature, the mention of its *Tīrtharkara* is also found.

According to 'Deerghnikāyā' in the Boddha philosophy, the philosophic ideology of Ajit Keśkambalī is like this-'There is no such thing as charity or yajna or oblation offered to god. There is no such thing as the ripering of the fruits of the good or the evil deeds. There is no such thing as this world or that world. There is no mother or father. There are no such creatures as gods. There are no Śramaṇa-Brāhmiṇas in the world who may have come to know the truth or who are rightly knowledgeable, who may perceive this world and the other world themselves and may tell others about them. A living being in composed of four great elements. When it dies, the element of earth in the body is mingled with the earth, the element of water is mingled with water, the element of fire is mingled with the luminous body and the element of air is mingled with air. The senses make their way into the sky. Four persons carry away the dead person, bearing him on a cot His signs remain till he is burnt away, then his bones get pigeon-coloured. The oblations are reduced to ashes. 'Perform some Chanty', this is a sermon preached by fools. All that the theists say is false and has got no importance. A man may be foolsih or learned, but every thing is destroyed when the body is destroyed. Nothing remains there after death. This doctrine of Ajit Keśkamblī is known as 'Ucchaidvādā'.

6. Anyonyavādā

The Ācārya of the fourth sect was Pakudhkātyāyan. His ideology was, 'No one did all the seven matters, nor were they got done. They cannot be borne, they are eternal and as static as a pole. They do not move, do not change, do not cause trouble to one another and are incapable of providing either joy or sorrow to any one.

The earth, the water, the luminous being, the air, joy, sorrow and the *Jīva*, these are the seven matters. None of them strikes or gets struck, none of them is the element that listens or that tells somehting or that knows something or that makes others know somehting. A person who gets the head of someone cut off by someone with a sharp weopon, does not commit a murder; he only gets the weapon inserted into the blank space that is there inbetween these seven matters, it is nothing else.' This doctrine is known as *Anyonyāvād*.

7. Vikşepvādā

The Ācārya of the sixth big sect was Sanjay Velaṭṭhiputra. He said, 'Whether there is another world, I do not know. I do not know this too whether another world is not there. Whether good or evil deeds bear fruits, I do not know. I do not believe this idea either that they do not bear fruits. It may be so, it may not be so. Whether Tathāgat lives after death, I do not understand. I do not understand this either that he does not live after death.' This doctrine of Sanjay Velatthiputra is known as *Vikṣepvād*. This Ācārya declared himself as *Tīrtharikara* and 'Jin'. He had hundreds of followers.

The preachers who rebelled against Lord Mahāvīra and separated themselves from his religious discipline because of some dispute over some idea or principle, were called Ninhava. Jamālī, Tiṣyagupta, Āṣāḍha śiṣya, Gang, Aśwamitra/Rohgupta and Goṣṭhāmāhil-These seven have been said to be Nuhava.

The history of conflict over some doctrine is as old as the history of doctrines and the process of thinking. It did not so happen that the sects of all the doctrines that were propounded were formed. The doctrines that didn't get the expected favourable conditions and the support of public remained confined upto a few people only, they could not develop as a sect. In the period of Lord Mahāvīra, the number of the followers of the doctrines that got the support of and recognition by public, went on increasing, they emerged as sects. The ideas of some of those philosophers have been stated here, some partially and some in detail.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

1. Essay-type question

Analyse in detail the forms of Krivīvāda and Non-Kriyāvāda.

2. Short answer-type questions

- 1. Does Boddha religion recognize the element of soul? Explain.
- Give a critical appreciation of the philosophic ideas of Ajitkeśkambali.

3. Objective-type questions

	In the period of Lord Mahavira, there were, according to the Jama literature, doctri			
		A. 63 B. 300 C. 100 D. 363	()
	2.	In the Centre of Kriyāvāda and Non-Kriyāvāda is:-		
		A. Body B. Soul C. Senses D. Mind	()
	3.	The basis of all the problems is knowledge. This assumption is the doctrine of:-		
		A. non-kriyāvāda B. pratityasamutpād C. The theory of ignorance D. syādvād	()
	4.	The persons giving the greatest value to the giving up of ego and to devotion and surren	der v	vere
		the:-		
A. Reactionists B. The followers of the doctrine of humility				
		C. The followers of the doctrine of <i>Kriyāvāda</i>		
		D. The followers of the doctrine of ignorance	()

	٥.	A. Ājīvak B. Śākya C. Garrik D.		()	
	6.	The other name for <i>Non-Kriyāvāda</i> A. The theory of soul C. The doctrine of the non-existance	B. The doctrine of ignorance	()	
	7.	'If this is the cause, this will be the a A. anekantvād B. pratityasamu		()	
	8.	The basis of 'The twelve primary ca A. Pain B. Caste C. Culture	auses' is:- D. Avidha	())	
 9. 'All the seven matters are static.' This is the assumption of:- A. anyonyavād B. The doctrine of humility C. vikṣepvād D. The doctrine of Non-materialism (
	10. 'Live happily so long as you live; Consume ghee even if your have to bolrow it.' This assumpt developed on the basis of:-					
		A. The theory of ignorance B. 7	Γhe doctrine of <i>Non-Kriyāvāda</i>			
		C. vikșepvād D. '	The doctrine of humility	()	

Ackowledgement-

- 1. Sūyagado (1)-By J.V.B.I. Ladnun (Raj.)
- Sūyagado (2)-By J.V.B.I. Ladnun (Raj.) 2.
- Jaina Darśan : Manan Aur Mīmāṃsā-By Ācārya Mahāpragya, Adarsh Sāhitya Saṅgh, Churu 3. (Raj.)
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Compiled By-Sādhvi Yasodharā.

LESSON 4

GANADHAR AND ĀCĀRYA TRADITION OF LORD MAHĀVĪRA

Background

Administration of Lord Mahāvīra's confraternity was well or Ganīzed. Its subsequent tradition is divided into two parts 6 1. Ganadhara tradition. 2. Ācārya tradition.

A Ganadhara is one who grasps the prevailing sermon in the form of its meaning and defines it in the form of an aphorism. There were eleven Gaṇadharas of Lord Mahāvīra. Their compositions are called 'Agama'.

An Ācārya is the administrator of the confraternity. To guide and interpret the meaning of the aphorisms and to control overall management is his responsibility. He is considered as a representative of the *Tirtharkara*. There is a prolonged tradition of succeeding $\bar{A}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}s$ that is continuing till today. In this lesson the period up JAIVERS' to 'Vallabhī Vācanā' is covered.

Gaoadhara tradition

1.1 Gaṇadhara Indrabhūti Gautama

Gaṇadhara Indrabhūti Gautama is famous by his family name - Gautama. He was born in a town named Gober. His father's name was Vasubhūti and his mother's name was Prithvī. They were very well respected in the Brāhmin community. Indrabūti was expert in four Vedās and fourteen Vidyas (sciences). In his society, he was a rich, leading and famous Yagfiik.

He went to Madhyama-*Pāyā*, on invitation from Somil Brāhmīn, to participate in the *vaifia* festival. In Madhyama Pāvā he came into contact with Lord Mahāvīra. He had a doubt, in his own mind, about the existence of 'jīva'. Lord Mahāvīra surprised him by divining his secret doubt and clearing it up. His inner soul bowed down at the feet of Lord Mahāvīra On listening to the sermon of divine knowledge from Lord Mahāvīra, he understood the wisdom of reality, and he dedicated himself to Lord Mahāvīra. At the age of 50 years he, with his 500 Brāhmiņa disciples renounced worldly life. He was the first disciple and the first Gaṇadhara of Lord Mahāvīra. According to the Digambar tradition he was also the first successor of Mahāvīra. But the Śvetāmbar tradition does not believe so.

Gautama used to ask questions and Lord Mahāvīra gave solutions to them. Comprehensive discussions on many philosophical and theoretical subjects in such a question and answer form are found in the Agamas. Whatever sermons Lord Mahavira gave in this form, addressing Gautama, have become epics of eternal truth.

After the nirvān of Lord Mahāvīra, he attained 'kaivalya' (omniscience) at the age of 80 and at the age of 92 he attained 'moksa'. Even though Gautama was 8 years older in age, his devotion, inquisitiveness and respect towards Lord Mahāvīra reveal his extraordinary personality.

1.2 Agnibhūti Gautama

Agnibhūti was Indrabhūti's middle brother. He was also a learned teacher of 500 *Brāhmina* students. and he had also come with his group of students, to Madhyama-Pāvā to attend the yajña festival of Somilarya. He was also a great exponent of *Vedās*, *Upaniṣads*, and *Karmakanda* (rites and rituals). Everybody was attracted by his impressive personality. His conduct was pleasing and polite.

On hearing the news of renunciation by Indrabhūti, Agnibhūti was startled and came to Lord Mahāvīra's congregation with a firm determination of having a debate on the scriptures. Looking at the screne facial features of Lord Mahāvīra, he was completely absorbed and lost awareness of his own presence. Like gold that gets refined and glittering after it is heated in fire, Agnibhuti's soul got refined and started glittering. He wished to renounce the worldly life to enlighten his soul.

His doubts about duality and non-duality were automatically dissolved. Agnibhuti, at the age of 46 years, renounced the worldly life at the feet of Lord Mahāvīra.

1.3 Vayubūti Gautama

Vayubhūti Gautama was Indrabhūti 's younger brother. He had also come to Madhyama-Pāvā with 500 disciples to attend the festival of sacrifice or Gaṇīzed by Somilarya. When he got the news of renunciation by Indrabhūti and Agnibhuti, he had a fervent desire to have a debate on the scriptures with Lord Manāvīra.

He thought, 'I do not know how my two brothers got trapped by that sorcerer? I have to protect the *Vedic* beliefs. Therefore I must defeat Mahāvīra in the debate on scriptures. Who has the capability to oppose the belief in the goodness of physical happiness, wealth, sacrifices, rites and rituals, castism, existence of multiple gods, etc.? I believe that both my brothers are more learned and brilliant, but I have full trust in my own knowledge. It is my faith that there is no element like 'soul' separate from the physical body. I will go to Mahāvīra's meeting and will defeat him with my logic.'

Thus rejoicing in his own pride, Vayubūti came to Lord Mahāvīra's congregation. There he just stood staring at Lord Mahāvīra's auspicious face, without blinking. His pride of knowledge was crushed. His heart was now glittering with full devotion. His arrogance and false stubbornness were removed with a change of heart. All the possibilities in his mind got resolved.

Vayubūti was real brother of Mahāvīra's first Gaṇadhara Indrabhūti and Gaṇadhara Agnibhuti, having the same family name Gautama and the same parents. He had a doubt, 'is body itself soul, or body is different from soul?'

He got initiated by Lord Mahāvīra at the age of 42 years, and obtained the status of third Gaṇadhara.

1.4 Vyakta

How limitations can significantly, change a person's life can be learned from the life of Vyakta. He was a Brāhmavādī and believed that worldly prosperity could be achieved by performing sacrifice and rites. When he came to know that Lord Mahāvīra was in a congregation and people were gathering there to listen to his speech; he could not control his desire and so he too, came there. Vyakta was a learned teacher. 500 students were studying *Vedās* under nim. Fame of his vast knowledge had spread all over the eastern provinces. He was a resident of Kollag colony and was a *Brāhmiṇa* of the *Bhārdvāj* family. His mother's name was Varuni and his father's name was Dhanamitra. Vyakta was famous for his erudition. He had doubts about the existence of the visible world. He had the capability to defeat great scholars in debate. But he was also arrogant about his erudition. Vyakta came to Lord Mahāvīra's congregation. Just by looking at Lord Mahāvīra all his doubts got resolved. He started thinking that 'Mahāvīra's brilliance is magnificent. Before him all others are dull. Till now I was tangled in doubts about duality. But today my eyes are opened. I have realized the truth. Therefore I should not delay in renouncing the worldly life.

Vyakta got initiated at the age of 50 years, and obtained the status of fourth Ganadhara.

1.5 Sudharmā

The name of Mahāvīra's fifth Ganadhara was Sudharmā. He is famous as Sudharmā Swāmi. He was a

Brāhmiṇa of *Agnivaiśyāyana* Gotra and a resident of *Kollāg* colony. His mother's name was Bhaddila and father's name was Dhammill. He had also come to Madhyama- *Pāvā* with his 500 students to attend the festival of sacrifice orGaṇīsed by Ārya Somil.

When he got the news of the initiation of Indrabhūti, Agnibhūti, and others, he also desired to see Lord Mahāvīra. He entered the serene atmosphere of Lord Mahāvīra's congregation.

By the Midas touch of the great sculptor of souls, his attachment (worldly) started turning into brightness (of soul). He was exhilarated looking at the serene face of Mahāvīra. Sudharmā started thinking, 'I am already 50 years old. Till now I have not done any reformation of my soul. I am sunk in the arrogance of my knowledge and my caste. I have neither done any purification nor any enlightenment of my soul. In reality non-violence is the instrument of ele Vātion of life. The person who is impressed by wealth and glory can never be great. Even the gods will bow down before the humanity of a human being. Therefore a person should always experience and practice humane virtues like truth, non-violence, etc. and spiritual qualities like 'jñān' and 'darśana' (knowledge and perception). Human beings are all equal. No person is great or small by birth. Every person becomes great or small by his own act, virtues and performance. Therefore, now I must renounce.' Sudharmā got initiated at the age of 50 years. He was Mahāvīra's 5th Gaṇadhara. Sudharmā lived very long. He administered Śramana confraternity for many days.

1.6 Mandita

Maṇḍita was a supporter of numerology. In his mind he had doubts about the existence of 'baṇdha and mokṣa' (bondage and salvation). He was a resident of Maurya colony and a Brāhmiṇa scholar of Vaśiṣṭha family. His mother's name was Vijayādevī and his father's name was Dhanadeo. He had 350 students. He came to Madyama-Pāvā on invitation from Somil Ārya to participate in the festival of sacrifice. Maṇḍita had a healthy body and fair complexion, and was seven feet tall. Fame of his knowledge was spread in the entire eastern province. He was more of an expert of Logic than of Vedās. His students were also especially experts in Philosophy and Logic.

Obtaining the news of initiation of Indrabhut Vāyubūti and others, Maṇḍita also wished in his mind to enter and attend Lord Mahāvīra's congregation. He started thinking - 'What miracle does Lord Mahāvīra have by which he can make great scholars his disciples? Indrabhūti Agnibhūti and others were scholars of *Vedās* and rites and rituals. May be they were not so strong in Logic. Therefore possibly Mahāvīra could so easily subdue them. I am a scholar of Logic. Mahāvīra or any of his students can not stand before me. Today I will go and surely debate with Mahāvīra and defeating him will raise my banner of victory. Thus Maṇḍita , sunk in his own thoughts, with his 350 students, came to Mahāvīra's congregation situated at Vipulachal. There at the age of 50 years he got enlightened. He, then, got initiated by Lord Mahāvīra.

He obtained the status of sixth Ganadhara of Mahāvīra.

1.7 Mauryaputca

Name of seventh Gaṇadhara of Lord Mahāvīra is Mauryaputra. This Mauryaputra was a *Brāhmiṇa* of *Kaṣyap* family. His father's name was Maurya and his mother's name was Vijayādevī. He was a resident of Maurya colony. He was also a teacher of 350 students. He had also come to Madyama-*Pāvā* on invitation from Ārya Somil. He had doubts about transmigration and reincarnation. Therefore after getting news of initiation of Agnibhūti, Indrabhūti and others, he also came to Lord Mahāvīra's congregation.

On looking at Mahāvīra's congregation a wave of right perception emanated in his soul. He started thinking - 'What is this human life? In this world, a powerful man will attack a weak person, as in the ocean, a big fish will swallow a small fish. Caste boundaries and limitations are there. *Brāhmiṇas* are proud of their

knowledge and their caste. They have established their sole mastery over prayers, feasts, study and teaching. Vaiśyās believe they have sole mastery over commerce. They consider that to accumulate wealth by any means is their right. Kṣatriyās take pleasure in making others miserable. Śudra caste is tormented from all directions. No one is experiencing the light kindled in the soul. Every soul can become a super-soul by endeavour. A person is not great or small by birth. That depends upon his conduct. Therefore, I will uplift my soul by surrendering myself to Lord Mahāvīra. There is nothing better for my well-being. He was exhilarated and he determined to renounce the worldly pleasures. Thinking thus, Mauryaputra got initiated at the age of 65 years, leaving behind all his physical possessions and mental attachments.

1.8 Akampita

Akampita was a *Brāhmiṇa* of Gautama family and a resident of *Mithilā*. His mother's name was Jayantī and father's name was Deo. 300 students were studying under him. On invitation from Ārya Somil to attend the sacrifice festival he also came to Madhyama-*Pāvā* with his group of students. He had doubts about existence of hell and denizens of hell. So he started to go towards Lord Mahāvīra's congregation. He started thinking about eternal power of soul. He thought, 'Virtues of soul are ones own wealth. That do not come from outside. Its acquisition means realization of these virtues by removing the perversity. Like as soon as the cover of clouds recedes the sunshine radiates all over; similarly as soon as the perversity is removed the true nature is revealed. When the desires and *yearning* come to an end in the mind of an accomplisher, he comes out of the state of options and uncertainties and reaches the state of definite stability. And he sheds off his earlier accumulated 'karma'. This state of definite stability does not come from somewhere outside; it only means revelation of soul's own original natural state. Therefore I will also take advantage of this opportunity and will get initiated by Lord Mahāvīra.'

Thus Akampit, leaving behind all worldly belongings got initiated at the age of 47 years, and got the status of 8th Ganadhara.

1.9 Acala Bhrātā

The debate about relinquishment of internal and external belongings by Lord Mahāvīra and his chief disciples was spreading everywhere. His sermons were opening layers of life. Discourses about bondage and freedom of soul were attracting attention of intelligent people. Therefore Acal Bhrātā also got ready to go to Lord Mahāvīra's congregation. He was a resident of *Kośal* and a *Brāhmiṇa* of Harit family. His mother's name was *Narida*, and his father's name was Vasu. He had 300 students. He was an expert of rites and rituals and science of sacrifice. Therefore he had come with his group of students to participate in Somil Ārya's festival of sacrifice. He had downs about the existence of 'puṇya-pāpa' and their fruits. His vision of life was confused. He was getting enjoyment only from pleasures of sense organs, body and mind. Existence of his pure consciousness was pressed under layers of perversion, like a water flow pressed under several layers of rocks. He believed that pny sical beauty, tasty food and pleasing fragrance were everything in life.

Attaining proximity of Lord Mahāvīra, he changed his life style. And he got initiated at the age of 47 years. He attained salvation at the age of 72 years. He was 9th Gaṇadhara.

1.10 Metācya Gaņadhara

There was a town called Tungik in the province of Vātsa. There, a few Brāhmiņas of Kaudilya family were staying. Varunādevī was the name of the wife of one of the Brāhmiņas. Varunādevi gave birth to a delicate and fortunate son. He was named Metārya. Metārya became scholar in many subjects. Particularly he was authority in Vedic scriptures. He was teaching 300 students. But in his mind he had doubt about the existence of transmigration. Even after many efforts the doubt could not be resolved. This was resolved by Lord Mahāvīra. He had come to Madhyama-Pāvā with Gautama Swami to attend Somil's festival of sacrifice.

From there he went to Lord Mahāvīra. After resolving his doubt he, with his 300 students renounced the worldly life and got initiated by Lord Mahāvīra. That time his age was 37 years. He was 10th Gaṇadhara of Mahāvīra. At the age of 47 years he obtain 'kevaljñān' (omniscient). He remained in that state of omniscient for 16 years. He obtained salvation at the age of 62 years.

1.11 Prabhāsa Gaņadhara

A Brāhmiņa named Bala was resident of Rājgrha. His wife's name was Atibhadrā. She gave birth to a son in the zodiac sign of cancer in the constellation of Puṣpa. Therefore he was named Prabhāsa. He became an authority scholar of Vedic scriptures at very young age. He was teaching 300 students very efficiently. Inspite of being an expert in many sciences, he had doubt in his mind about existence of 'mokṣa' (salvation). Lord Mahāvīra resolved this secret doubt hidden in his mind. As soon as the doubt was resolved, he immediately renounced the worldly life at the very young age of 16 years, and became a monk. After 8 years at the age of 24 years he obtained 'kevaljñān'. After 16 years, at the age of 40 years he obtained salvation. He was the 11th Gaṇadhara of Lord Mahāvīra.

Ācārya Jambu

Omniscient Ācārya Jambu was the second successor of Lord Mahāvīra. Even though he was not a royal prince, he was not enjoying any less luxurious life. He was born in the year 16 Vīr nirvān, (Before Vikram 486) in Rājgṛha. Rājgṛha was capital of Magadha. During the rule of emperor Śrenik, magnificence of this city was greater than heaven. Son of a very rich merchant, Jan.bu, with his 527 companions got initiated by Ācārya Sudharmā in the year 34 Vīr nirvān (Before Vikram 468). Most of the Āgama begins with the dear address of 'Jambu'. 'Jambu! I have heard from omniscient śri vītarāga (free from passions) Lord Mahāvīra.' This sentence of Ācārya Sudharmā is very renowned in Āgama literature. Ācārya Jambu was owner of sharp inteligence. He like R ṣi Agastya, absorbed the endless ocean of knowledge of Ācārya Sudharmā with his quick grasping, and grasping everything, character. Famous and renowned Jambu, who knew the meaning of entire scriptures, attained 'kevaljñāna' at the age 36 years. Both Digambar and Śwetāmbar traditions give equal respect to Sudharmā and Jambu. Ācārya Jambu was the last 'kevalī' (omniscient) of this era. He obtained 'nirvān' in the year 64 (after Vīr nirvān).

He was initiated at the age of 17 years. Out of 64 years of his monkhood, he was 'Yugpradhān' Ācārya for 44 years.

During Ācārya Jambu's period, Šiśunāg Vanširaj ruled Magadha. Later the control was taken over by *Naridavaņša. Avaņtī* was ruled by Avantīvardhan, son of Rājāpālak. *Kaušāmbī* was ruled by king Ajitsen and later by Manibhadra. These three were very influential kingdom of that period. These kings had deep faith in Ācārya Jambu and his confinermity.

Ācārya Prabhava

Prabhava was a *Kṣatriya* prince. Prabhava was born in the town of Jaipur in *Viṇdhya pradeś* in the year 30 *Vīr nirvāṇ* (Before Vikram 500 years). He was the eldest son of the king of *Vindhya*. His family name was Kātyāyana. For some reason king made his younger son his successor. So Prabhava, who was very intelligent and very healthy, got angry. He went away and joined a group of thieves. Because of his bravery, he became leader of 500 thieves.

This imperator of thieves Prabhava became a very high caliber ascetic, and an imperator of *Sramans* (monks). He had two special skills; *avaśvāpinī* and *tālodaghāṭinī*. By *avaśvāpinī* he could make everybody sleep. And by *tālodaghāṭinī* he could open any type of lock. Even the army of emperor Śrenika was scared of him. Such master of thievery, Prabhava, with his entire group got initiated by Sudharmā (Before Vikram 468).

He became Ācārya after Jambu. Ācārya Prabhava's position among great *Jainācārya* is very high. To initiate into confraternity of Lord Mahāvīra, a great arrogant and formidable opponent like Śayyambhava, is a strong example of his magnarimity. He was the first in the series of 'Śrutkevalī'. He was initiated at the age of 30 years. Out of his 75 years of monkhood he was Ācārya for 11 years. Taking vow of fast unto death at the age of 106 years, he obtained salvation in the year 75 *Vīr nirvān* (385 Before Vikram).

Naridās were ruler during the period of Ācārya Prabhava. Scholars believe ruler *Naridās* were Jains. Rulers being Jainas, Ācārya Prabhavba had favorable political atmosphere for spreading the religion.

Ācārya Śayyambhava

Renowned Ācārya Śayyambhava was earlieran arrogant scholar. He was born in a *Brāhmiņa* household of *Vāt*sa family in the year 36 *Vīr nirvāṇ* (434 Before Vikram). He was a distinguish scholar particularly in *Vedās* and *Vedic* philosophy. He became a Jaina monk, coming into contact with Ācārya Prabhava in the year 64 *Vīr nirvāṇ* (406 Before Vikram). During his old age, he appointed his famous scholar disciple Yaśobhadra as his successor. His life was a blend of *Brāhmiṇa* and Jaina cultures. He got initiated at the age of 28 years, and he became Ācārya at the age of 39 years. Out of 34 years of monk-hood, he executed his responsibility of Ācārya with dexterity for 23 years. He attained salvation at age of 62 years in the year 68 *Vīr nirvāṇ* (372 Before Vikram).

Ācārya Yasobhadra

Yaśobhadra was the most glorious Ācārya in Jaina order. He was the 5th successor of Lord Mahāvīra. He was third in the series of 'Śrutadhara' Ācārya. His teacher was Ācārya Śayyambhava. He was initiated by Ācārya Śayyambhava. Ācārya Yaśobhadra did deep study of Jaina Agama and Pūrva under him.

Ācārya Yaśobhadra was born in a *Brāhmiṇa* family in the year 34 Before Vikram. His family name was Tuṅgikāyan. He was a scholar of rites- rituals. He was a successful or Gaṇīzer of big sacrifice festivals. He had a strong image of powerful personality on the *Brāhmṇa* society. Once by chance, he got an occasion to hear Ācārya Śayyambhava's impressive sermon. This auspicious sermon of soul purification changed the life of Brāhmiṇa Yaśobhadra.

Engrossed by feeling of apathy towards the worldly pleasures, the *Brāhmiṇa* scholar Yaśobhadra got initiated as a Jaina monk by *Śramaṇa* chief Ācārya Śayyambhava in the year 64 *Vīr nirvāṇ* (406 Before Vikram).

He succeded Ācārya Śayyambhava as an Ācārya in the year 98 Vīr nirvāņ (312 Before Vikrant). He executed this responsibility very efficiently.

During the period of nis Ācārya hood, Magadha was ruled by *Narida*. By that time *Pātliputrā* had become the capital of Magadha.

This was very appropriate area for spreading religious message. Ācārya Yaśobhadra moved about in this area for a long period. His sermons impressed, all the people, from common man to the ruling class. Till Ācārya Śayyambhava, there was a tradition of 'only one Ācārya'. While Ācārya Yaśobhadra appointed Sambhūtvijaya and Bhadrabāhu, both as Ācārya. This was a new activity in Jaina order.

Ācārya Yaśobhadra was a scholar of vast knowledge of 14 *Pūrva*, possessor of most noble character and very gentle nature. He was one of the leading Ācāryās of his time.

Ācārya Yasobhadra died in the year 148 Vīr Nirvān (322 Before Vikram), at the age of 83 years.

Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya

Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya was the sixth successor of Lord Mahāvīra and the fourth 'Śrutakevalī'in the series of 'Śrutakevalī'. He was born in the family of Mathhar. Being born in a Brāhmiṇa family, Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya acquired from childhood, that (Brāhmīn) religion and philosophy. But listening to sermons of Ācārya Yaśobhadra he was casted into Jaina culture. He was born in the year 66 Vīr nirvāṇ (404 Before Vikram). He was initiated at the age of 42 years in the year 108 Vīr nirvāṇ (362 Before Vikram), with great zeal. First 40 years he remained a common monk, then the last 8 years he was in the seat of Ācārya. He died in the year 156 Vīr nirvāṇ (314 Before Vikram).

Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya's group of nuns was very powerful. Seven very intelligent daughters of chief minister Šakaḍāla, Yakṣā, Yakṣādinna, Bhūtā, Bhūtādinna, Senā, Venā, and Renā were initiated by Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya.

During his period of Ācāryahood, rule of *Narida* dynasty was at the peak. Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya contributed greatly to augment the spiritual and physical culture of the kingdom.

There were 9 *Narida* during 155 years of *Narida* dynasty. Śakaḍāl was chief mir ister during the rule of rinth *Narida*. Śakaḍāl's son Sthūlibhadra was initiated by Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya. This corroborates the rule of 9th *Narida* at that time.

Ācārya Bhadrabāhu

Bhadrābahu was the 5th Ācārya in the series of Śrutdhara Ācārya. He was the last Śrutkevalī. He has occupied a very respectable place as a Śrutdhara Ācārya in both Digambar and Śwetāmbar traditions.

Bhadrābahu's teacher was Yaśobhadra. His family name was 'Prācīn' according to *NandiSūtra* and *Daśāśrutskandha*. He was born in the year 94 *Vīr nirvāṇ* (316 Before Vikram). He got initiated as a monk in the year 139 *Vīr nirvāṇ*. He studied under his teacher Ācārya Yaśobhadra for 17 years. He studied all 'Āgama' very deeply, and absorbed the whole series of 'pūrva'. He became Ācārya in the year 156 *Vīr nirvāṇ*.

Ācārya Bhadrābahu's personality was magnanimous and impressive. He underwent a special 'sādhanā' of 'mahāprāṇa' meditation in the caves of Nepalian Mountains. On request from the confraternity he agreed to teach Ācārya Sthūlibhadra the knowledge of fourteen 'pūrva'. But for some reasons, he could give knowledge of ten 'pūrva' with meaning, and knowledge of four 'pūrva' only verbatim.

Ācārya Bhadrabāhu was one of the authors of 'Āgama'. He composed Daśāśrutskandha, Vṛhatkalpa' Vyavahāra, and Niṣīth 'ChedSitras'.

He provided successful leadership, and gifted invaluable wealth of 'Śrutasampadā', to the order of Jaina religion. He died in the year of 170 Vīr nirvān (300 Before Vikram).

Ācārya Sthūlibhadra

Ācārya Sthūlibhadra's teacher was Sambhūtvijaya. Sambhūtvijaya was a Śrutdhara Ācārya and was a disciple of Ācārya Yaśobhadra. Śrutdhara Ācārya Bhadrābahu was co-student of Ācārya Sambūtvijaya. Śramana Sthūlibhadra had done deep study of 'Ekadaśārigi' under Ācārya Sambhūtvijya. After the end of 12 years draught, Śramana Sthūlibhadra got special training in 'Dristivad Āgama' under Śrutdhar Ācārya Bhadrābahu. He was also successor of Ācārya Bhadrābahu. His father's name was Śakadāl and mother's name was Laxmī. After Ācārya Sambhūtvijaya, the most important task of that time was the 'vācanā' (compilation) of Āgamas. The flow of 'Śruta' was scattered due to 12 years of draught. To consolidate it, a mahāśraman-conference was orGaṇīzed in Pātliputrā. Sthūlibhadra was himself orGaṇīzer of this function. Non-availability of 'Dṛṣṭivād' made every one worried. To fill up this big important gap in the ocean of

knowledge, it was decided by the confraternity that Sthūlibhadra should stay in Nepal as a student under Ācārya Bhadrābahu. Accordingly, he studied and absorbed the entire knowledge of 14 'pūrva' with great care and patience and thus saved and protected the missing link of 'Dṛṣṭivād'. He could obtain 'with meaning' 'vācanā' only for ten 'pūrva'. The last four 'Pūrva' he could obtain only the 'verbatim' version. Completed around the year 160 Vīr Nirvāṇ, this was the first important 'vācanā'.

After Bhadrābahu, Sthūlibhadra became Ācārya in the year Vīr nirvāņ (300 Before Vikram). He made advancement in Jaina religion in many forms.

He lived a long life. Maurya emperor Candragupta, and, expert politician genius, having faith in Jaina religion. Cāṇakya lived during his life. The most tragic event of fall of *Nanda* Empire also was an important part of the history of that period. After the end of draught, important work of completion of 'Āgama vācanā' was done in the presence Ācārya Sthūlibhadra. Nearly a century of Sthulibhadra's life is a very important page in history, full of ups and downs. The status of 'Ācārya' itself was elevated because of his extra ordinary achievements. He died in the year 215 *Vīr nirvāṇ* (255 Before Vikram) on the mountain *Vaibhavagiri*, after doing fast unto death for 15 days.

Ācārya Mahāgiri

Ācārya Mahāgiri was very learned Ācārya. He was an exceptional 'sādhah' to do 'sādhanā' equal to 'Jinkalpa'. He was born in the year 145 Vīr nirvāṇ (325 Before Vikram) in the family of Elapatya. Ācārya Mahāgiri also lived a long life, like brilliant Ācārya Sthūlibhadra. He renounced at the age of 30 years. His monkhood period was 40 years long. And his Ācāryahood period was 30 years long. He died in Gajendrapur in Mālava province in the year 245 Vīr nirvāṇ (225 Before Vikram).

Ācārya Suhasti

Instructor of emperor Samprati, Ācārya Suhasti was from *Vašishtha* family. He was founder of several spiritual activities. He was born in the year 181 *Vīr Nirvān* (274 Before Vikram).

From Ācārya Suhasti's time, tradition of three Ācāryās began. 'Gaṇācārya' was responsible for the administration of the confraterrity. 'Vācanācārya' was the guide for compiling 'Āgama'. And 'Yugapradhānācārya' was responsible for general spiritual activities.

Ācārya Suhasti was instrumental in spreading Jaina religion far away in all directions. During his rule, *Avanti* and *Sauraṣṭra* also became chief centers of religion like Magadha. He renounced at the age of 30 years. After 70 years of meticulous practicing of true religion, he died in the year $281V\bar{r}$ nirvāṇ (Before Vikram) in *Avanti*.

Ācārya Samudra, Mangoo, Bhadragupta

According to *Himavarita Sthavirāvali and Narīdi Sthavirāvali* Ācārya Samudra was successor of Ācārya Šāndilya, and Ācārya Mangoo was successor of Ācārya Samudra. But according to *Vālabhī yugpradhān paṭṭāvalī*, Mangoo was successor of Re*Vāt*imitra.

The fame of Ācārya Samudra was spreaded up to the coast of ocean. He also was staid like an ocean in unfavorable circumstances.

Ācārya Mangoo was a scholar of *Āgama*, an expert in code of conduct, a meditator of meaning of scriptures, conqueror in debates, a great lecturer, and a steadfast Ācārya.

Ācārya Bhadragupta was a scholar of 10 *Pūrva*. He was an extraordinary astrologer. Ācārya Vajraswāmi obtained his knowledge of ten '*pūrva*' from Ācārya Bhadragupta.

Ācārya Śyām (First Kālkācārya)

In Jaina history, there have been several *Kālkācāryās*. The first *Kālkācāryā* is more famous as Śyāmācārya. He was a special orator of '*Drvyānuyog*'. His knowledge about 'nigod' was very deep. Composition of '*Prajñāpanā*' *Sūtra* is a testimony of his deep erudition. It is said that, once, Saudharmendra (a god), hearing praise about knowledge of Śyāmācārya from the mouth of Simandhara Swāmī, came to debate with him in the form of a Brāhmīn. Satisfied with his replies he introduced himself; and told the story about hearing the praise from the mouth of Simandhara Swāmī. Listening to own praise, he became haughty. He said, 'how my students will know about your coming here?' Saudharmendra shifted the door of the building from east to west as a proof of his coming. But he was sad that now onwards capacity of humans to digest praise and knowledge is reduced. From that time on wards gods stopped coming in their original form. Ācārya Śyāma was born in the year 280 Vīr nirvān (180 Before Vikram). He remained Ācārya for 41 years. Obtairing much credit about spreading of Jaina religion, he died at the age of 84 in the year 376 Vīr nirvān (84 Before Vikram).

Ācārya Kālak

The second Kālakācārya was very revolutionary. To retaliate and to teach a lesson to an unjust king he went across the border of *Bhārat*. There he made friendship with Shah emperors, and returned to *Bhārat* with huge army of Shah noblemen crossing the river *Siridhu* by boats. He invaded *Avanu*, and defeated Gardabhill. Gardabhill was driven out of country, and Śaka were established on the throne. All this was manifestation of the strong will power and forceful personality of Ācārya Kālak. He was the first one to start the tradition of going abroad by an Ācārya. Ācārya Kālak's knowledge in the fields of astrology and 'nimitta' was very vast. His decision to observe 'Samvatsarī on 'caturthī' (fourth day afternew moon), was accepted by the confratemity unanimously. This was also a result of his brilliant personality. 'Šandilya' branch was established during Kālak's tradition. The time of Dethroning of Gardabhill and establishment of Śaka on the throne of Avanti was the year 453 Vīr Nirvān (Before Vikram 17). On this basis Ācārya Kālak is proved to be a scholar of 5th century after Vīr nirvān.

Ācārya Khapuţ

Ācārya Khapuṭ was one of the capable Ācāryās of his time. In 'Nisīthacūrni' there is a mention of eight types of persons to be effective spreader of religion. There, Ācārya Khapuṭ's name is mentioned as the one who is effective spreader of religion on the strength of knowledge. Because of his accomplishment in several branches of knowledge, he has been given the title of 'Ācārya Samrāṭ'. Many miraculous events of Khapuṭ Ācārya are well known. Commentator like Malyagiri has called him 'Vidyā Cakravartī'. His period is believed to be around the year 484 Vīr niv āṇ (Vikram samvant 14). There is no indication available as to which group Khapuṭ belonged to. Mention of Bhuvan and Mahendra as his students are found in some places. Pādalipta

Ācārya Pādalipta

Ācārya Pādalipta was master of several miraculous skills. He had extraordinary power of commuting to desired destination through sky by applying paste of some medicines to his feet. He was a good poet; and was an outstanding member of assembly of king Śātavāhana of *Hala* dynasty. PādaliptaSūri by using his skills of 'mantra' made king Muroond and other kings, co-worker in spreading religion. He was very much respected among scholars because of his poetic talents. He was appointed as Ācārya at the age of 10 years by NāgahastiSūri. Therefore his period seems to be earlier part of 6th century of $V\bar{v}r$ $nirv\bar{a}n$ (later part of 3rd century of Vikram). Prof. Lyson has accepted his period to be 2nd, 3rd century A. D. Based on that also Ācārya Pādalipta, is proved to be a scholar of 7th or 8th century $V\bar{v}r$ $nirv\bar{a}n$ (3rd century Vikram).

Ācārya Vajraswāmi

Great orator Ācārya Vajraswāmi was born in the year 486 Vīr nirvāņ (Vikram 26). Even in his childhood

he was reluctant towards worldly pleasures. As a child, he was nourished with nectar (knowledge) of 'Ekadaśāṅgī' together with nourishment of milk. His spiritual teacher baptized him. At the early age of three years, he preferred company of monks instead of mother's attachment. He renounced the worldly pleasures at the age of 8 years. He was the last 'Dasa Pūrvadhar' (to be a holder of knowledge of 10 'pūrva') Ācārya. He was also holder of 'gagaṇa gāminī' skill. He lived for 88 years, out of which 36 years he was Ācārya. Ācārya Vajraswāmi was a strong supporting pillar of Jaina order. The treasure of knowledge of 'dasve pūrva' (tenth pūrva) was lost by the Jaina order with his death. Also caturth ardhanārāca was destroyed. Non- analytical style of lectures of 'Kālika' scriptures also stopped after him. Branch 'Vajiśākha' was created in his name. He died fasting unto death in the year 584 Vīr nīrvāṇ (Vikram SaṃVāt 114). Indra riding his chariot went round the mountain range where the tomb of Ācārya Vajraswāmi and his 500 śramaṇs was situated. Therefore the mountain is named 'Rathavart' mountain.

Ācārya Kundakunda

Several eminent personalities from south have contributed in the progress of Jaina literature. Ācārya Kundakunda is the foremost of them. He was the chief exponent of spiritualism. His self-experienced sermons had opened a new horizon of spiritualism; and gave a dignity to the spiritual elements of being logical.

Dr. Jyotiprasād has estimated his period to be between 8 BC to 44AD. Based on this estimate it can be said that he existed between years 518 to 571 Vīr nirvān (Vikram Samvant 48 to 101).

He had composed 84 'Prābhṛta'. But today only 12 are available. 'Daršan Prabhurta', 'Cāritra Prābhṛta' and 'Bodha Prābhṛta' are the main ones. His main renowned books are 'Samayasār', 'Pravacansār', 'Niyamasār', 'Pañcāstikāya' and others. Ācārya Kundakunda was a resident of south Bharat. He belonged to 'Vaiśya' caste. He was born in the town Kundakundpur in south Bhārat. His father's name was Karmandu, and mother's name was Śrīmatī. As per a reference available in 'Samayasār', Ācārya Kundakunda had acquired knowledge from Simandharswāmi in Mahāvideha. Commentator Jayasen has also made a mention of his journey to Videha.

Ācārya Kundakunda was a brilliant Ācārya of *Digambar* tradition. Among *Digambar* community, his compositions are considered to be equal to *Āgāmas*.

Ācārya Āryarakşita

Āryarakṣita was 'Anuyoga' administration Ācārya. He was (Niryuhaka) of 'Anuyogadvār'. He has obtained a special place in the series of 'Yugapradhān' Ācārya. He was born in the town of Daśapur in Madhyapradesh in the year 522 \(\nabla \tilde{r} \) nirvān (Vikram Samvant 52). His main areas of travelling were areas around Avanti, Mathurā, and Daśapura. Special events of his life are related to these cities. He had lived for 75 years. He held the responsibility of 'Yugapradhān' Ācārya for 18 years. In the town of Mandasaur in the year 587 \(\nabla \tilde{r} \) nirvān (Vikram Samvant 127) revered by god, 'Anuyoga' administrator, a great person, Ācārya Āryarakṣita died. Some historians believe that he lived for 85 years. As per them Ācārya Āryarakṣita was born in the year 502 \(\nabla \tilde{r} \) nirvān (Vikram Samvant 32), and he met Ācārya Bhadragupta in the year 533 \(\nabla \tilde{r} \) nirvān (Vikram Samvant 63).

Ācārya Durbalikā Puşyamitra

Ācārya Durbalikā Puṣyamitra was a special 'sādhaka' of 'swādhyāya' yoga and meditation. He was student of 'Anuyoga' administrator Ācārya Āryarakṣita. He was born in the year 550 Vīr nirvāṇ (Vikram Samvant 80). In the year 567 Vīr nirvāṇ, he left worldly pleasures and became a monk. Ācārya Durbalikā Puṣyamitra was the last in the series of 'Pūrvadhar' Ācārya, having knowledge of nine 'Pūrva'. Out of 50 years of monkhood, he held responsibility of Ācārya for 33 years very proficiently. He died in the year 617 Vīr nirvāṇ (Vikram Samvant 147).

Ācārya Vajrasen

Ācārya Vajrasen was one of the exceptional Ācārya of his time. He was the first Ācārya in the series of 'Yugpradhān' Ācārya, to attain an age of above 125 years, and to be occupying the status of Ācārya with dignity at that age. He was born in the year of $472 \ V\bar{v} \ niv v\bar{a}n$ (Vikram Samvant 22). Even before he was 10 years old, he was eager to renounce the worldly pleasures and to enter the hard and difficult life of a monk. He renounced and became a monk in the year $501 \ V\bar{v} \ niv v\bar{a}n$ (Vikram Samvant 31). He became a great scholar of Jaina philosophy by doing very deep study of 'Āgama'.

Ācārya Vajrasen lived along life. He became monk at the age of nine years. During the time of 'Anuyogadhar' Aryaraksahit, Ācārya Vajrasen was presentas 'Vācanā Ācārya'. He took over the responsibility as 'Yugapradhān' from 'Dhyānyogi' Ācārya Durbalikā Pushayamitra in the year 617 Vīr nirvān (Vikram Samvant 147). He remained as Ācārya for three years only. But he lived an enthused monk life for about 120 years. He died at the age of 128 years in the year 620 Vīr nirvān (Vikrant Samvant 150).

Ācārya Guņadhara

The composition 'Kaṣāya Prābhṛta' written in Prākṛita language, has obtained an original status like that of 'Ṣaṭkharḍāgama' in the Digambar tradition. Ācārya Guṇadhara is the author of this composition. He made this incomparable gift in the form of 'Kaṣāya Prābhṛta' to the world of literature. Exceedingly dignified Ācārya Guṇadhara was contemporary of Ācārya Dharsen and therefore his period should be sixth century Vīr nirvāṇ.

Ācārya Puşpadanta and Bhūtabalī

Both, Ācārya Puṣpadaṅta and Bhūtabalī were very intelligent and accomplished Ācārya. 'Ṣaṭkhaṅḍāgama' is very important work of Digambar literature. It is also known as 'Ṣaṭkarma Prābhṛta khaṅda Sidhāṅta' and 'Ṣaṭkhaṅḍa Sidhāṅta'. The compositiof this work Ācārya Puṣpadaṅta had written 177 verses of 'Saṭprarupanā' within 'BisadiSūtra'

And dispatched it through Jinpālit to Ācārya Bhūtabalī. Ācārya Bhūtabalī produced 60 thousand verses further to the 177 verses produced by Ācārya Buspadanta, and completed the remaining part of the work. This is the work, popularly known as 'Ṣaṭkhanḍōgama'.

In the preface of the book the period of $\bar{A}c\bar{a}rya$ Bhūtabalī is mentioned as later than 663 $V\bar{r}$ $n\bar{r}v\bar{a}n$. On this basis, the period of $\bar{A}c\bar{a}rya$ Puspadanta and Butabali is later part of seventh century $V\bar{r}$ $N\bar{r}v\bar{a}n$ and later part of second century of Vikram

Ācārya Umāswāti

Umāswāti was one of the most brilliant Ācārya. Both *Digambar* and *Svetāmber* feel proud to believe that he belonged to their tradition. Both the communities respect him equally. In *Digambar* community, he is popular as Umāswami and Umāswāti. But in *Svetāmbar* community he is popular with one name only, Umāswāti.

Ācārya Umāswāti was author of 500 books. This is mentioned in the foreword of Hāribhadrīya Vritti of *Praśamoratī* chapter. But at present even a complete list of all the books is not available. Ācārya Umāswāti started the era of philosophy in Jaina community, by producing (the book) '*TattwārthaSūtra*'. Ācārya Umāswāti was born at the time when Sanskrit language was at its prime. He brought Jaina literature up to date by writing the book, *TattawārthaSūtra*' in Sanskrit.

According to recent researches, Umāswāti lived between CE 350-400, and belonged to *Ucchair Nagara Šakha* and composed *Sabhāsya Tattavārthādhigama Sūtra* in Sanskrit.

Digambar scholars consider Ācārya Umāswāti a scholar of 2nd century of Vikram. He also wrote a 'Bhāṣya' about his own book 'TattawārthaSūtra. This is an indication of existence of era of 'Bhāṣya'.

'Nayacakra' (a book) by Mallavādi, and its commentary have excerpts from 'TattwārthaSūtra' and its 'Bhāṣya'. Mallavādi was present in the year 884 Vīr nirvāṇ (414 Vikram Samvant). Therefore Ācārya Umāswāti's period was earlier than this.

Paṇḍit Sukhalālji has concluded in his preface to 'Tattvārtha' based on several research points that the latest period of Umāswāti was 5th century of $V\bar{r}rn\bar{r}v\bar{a}n$ (1st Vikram) and earliest period as 8th century $V\bar{r}rn\bar{r}v\bar{a}n$ (3-4 Vikram).

Ācārya Skaòdila and Nāgārjuna

Owner of deep knowledge, and belonging to 'Vācaka' series of Ācārya, brilliant Ācārya Skahdila and Nāgārjuna are famous as 'Āgama Vācanākār' (researchers of Āgama). Both were 'Anuyogadhar' Ācārya. Second terrible stroke of 12 years of draught, destructing 'Śrut' knowledge, hit Jaina community. After the end of draught, a conference of Śramaṇa was held in Mathurā. Ācārya Skahdila was the chief of the conference. The period of this second Āgama Vācanā is in the middle of 827 to 840 Vīr nirvān (357 to 370Vikram Samvant). This second Vācanā is called Māthuri Vācanā because it was held in Mathurā. It is also called Skandili Vācanā, because it was held under the chairmanship of Ācārya Skandila. Around the same time another Āgama Vācanā was held in the city of Vallabhī under the chairmanship of Ācārya Nāgārjuna. That is known as 'Vallabhī' and 'Nāgārjunīya.

Ācārya Merutunga has written on the subject of fixing the period of Ācārya Skandila in Sanskrit which means, 'Vajra Swāmi died in the year 114 Vikram Samvant,. Ācārya Skandila's period is 238 years thereafter.' According to the opinion of learned Muni Kalyān Vijayaji, period of both Vajra Swami and Ācārya Skandila is around year 242. After Vajra Swāmi, 13 years of Ārya Raksita, 20 years of Puṣpamītra, 3 years of Vajrasen, 68 years of Nāgahāsti, 58 years of ReVātimitra, 78 years of Brahmadipaka Sinha, makes a total of 242 years. To this sum of 242, adding 114 years of Vajra Swāmi and 14 years of 'Anuyoga' administrator famous 'Vācanākār Ācārya Skandila, his period is calculated as the year 827Vīr Nirvān to year 840. This is also the accepted period of 'Skandili Vācanā.

Questionnaire

1. Easy-type Question:

- 1. Describe the Ganadhara tradition in detail.
- 2. Describe the dedication of ācāryās which brought evolution in Jaina religion and philosophy.

2. Short-answer-type Questions:

- 1. Indrabhūti had which doubt in his mind?
- 2. Who was the first successor of Lord Mahāvīra?
- 3. Who was ruling Magadha during ācārya Yośobhadra ?.
- 4. Who was the successor of ācārya Yaśobhadra? Gaṇadhara
- Under whose guidence the Māthurī vācanā was held?

3. Objective-type Questions:

The disciple of Ācārya Khaputa

- (a) Muni Bhuvarakha,
- (b) Ācārya Yaśovijayaji
- (c) Āryarakṣita
- (d) Sthūlabhadra
- 2. Famous book of Ācārya Umāswāthi is
 - (a) Pańcāstikāya
- (b) Anuyogadvāra
- (c) Tattwārtha Sūtra
- (d) Bhagawatī
- 3. The family in which Ācārya Śayyambhava was born was
 - (a) Prācīna

(b) Vātsa

(c) Gautama

- (d) Vaiśya

- зырала Sūtra.

 1. Jaina Dharma Ke Prabhāka Ācārya Sādhvī Saṅghamitrā

 2. Upāsanā Part I, Mahāśtamaṇa Mudit Kumāra Ist Edition 1996

 3. Jaina Paraṃparā kā Itihāsa Ācārya Mahāprajña IVth Edition 1986

 Compiled by—

 Samaṇī Jayanta Prajñā

 Samaṇī Śāradā Prajñā

LESSON 5

JAINISM INLAND AND OVERSEAS

[Jainism in Northern India, Southern India and Foreign Countries]

1.0 Jainism in North India

Jaina religion is a religion of sanctity of soul and spiritual development. It has given more importance to self-discipline, restraint, penance, non-violence, observance of vows etc. It does not advocate any material gains as the means of spiritual development. Hence it is not easy to embrace this religion from the point of view of practice and conduct. However, it is instant and parallel in respect to greatness and utility. Of course, it could not achieve the desired expansion due to many reasons including its conduction based rigidness. One should not hesitate to concede this truth. Nevertheless it can be asserted that this religion, which emphasizes on Karmic shedding has expanded in various parts of India and also gained accessibility in many lands and regions abroad.

Bihār

The Mahāvīran religion in his times was professed not only by the general public but was also recognized by many royal families. King Ceṭaka the leader of the powerful Republic of Vajjis was a votary of Mahāvīra. He was traditionally a Jaina follower. He was a devotee in the Pārśvan tradition. Vaiśālī (presently Muzaffarpur district of $Bih\bar{a}r$) was the capital of the Republic of Vajji. Jainism held a high position there.

Śrenika' the emperor of Magadh, was previously, a follower of Buddhism. He became a follower of Nirgraritha religion (Jainism) after his contacts with the mork Anāthī. All this has been described in detail in the twentieth chapter of the Jaina canon, Uttarā-dhyayana, Sūtra. Cellanā, the queen of the King Śrenika was the daughter of the king Ceṭaka. She persistently tried to influence King Śrenika to follow the Nirgraritha religion and finally her effort gave fruit. Jainism was reld in high esteem in Magadha. King Kunika (Ajātaśatru), the son of Śrenika was also a devotee of Bhagwan Mahāvīra. There are many references of Mahāvīra and Kunika in Jaina canons.

After the Śiśunāga lineage, the Nanda-lineage gained greater influence in Magadha. According to noted historian H.C. Roychaudhary, the kingdom of Nandās had spread over upto Godāvarī river in the far off south of Mumbai. The Jainism was already in an effective position in Magadha and Kaliriga (Presently Orissa) and its influence was gaining ground in other countries as well.

According to Dr. Radhākumuda Mukherjee, nine *Nanda* kings are mentioned in Jaina texts by way of introduction (*A āvašyaka Sūtra*, P. 693). It is reiherated that *Nanda* was a 'Nāpita-putra' (Son of a barber) born of a prostitute (ibid, p. 890, *nāpita-dāsa... rājā jātaḥ*). But the texts did not mention the names of the kings in between the king Udāyi and nine other *Nandās*. Possibly, their names have been omitted as being non-entities.

The cause of inclination of *Naridās* towards Jainism was, possibly, their caste factor. Barring of first *Narida* lang, nothing is said against them in Jaina texts. The ministers of *Narida* kings happened to be Jains. The first of them was *Kalpa*ka who had to take over this position under compelling circumstances. It is said that the emperor *Narida* chalked out a plan with the specific help of this minister to get victory over the contemporary *Kṣatriya* kings through military might. The ministers of later *Narida* kings belonged to his lineage only (ibid, p 691-3). The ministers of ninth *Narida* king was Śakaḍāla. He had two sons: 1. Sthūlabhadra and 2. Śrīyaka. After the death of his father, Sthūlabhadra was offered the ministership, but he did not accept

it. He got initiated and became a Jaina monk. The ministership was, then, bestowed upon his brother Śrīyaka (ibid, p. 693-5).

The Sańskṛta drāma 'Mudrārākṣasa of later period has also admitted the popular tradition about the influence of Jairism on Naṅda kings. In the drama, Cāṇakya had selected a Jaina lay follower only as his spy. The social background of this drama is also influenced, to some extent by Jainism in that period.

The inscription of *Hāthī Gumpha* of *Khāravela* indicates that *Kalinga* (now Orrissa) was also ruled by the *Nandās*. He has been referred to a '*Nandā King*' in the text as one who constructed a canal which could not be used for 300 (or 103?) years. The King Khāravela extended the canal up to his capital in the fifth year of his accession.' In the text of another inscription, it is stated that the *Nanda* King-1 seized a Jaina idol (or foot prints) which was possessed traditionally by *Kalinga* kings, from them and brought to Magadha as a symbol of victory.

The rule of *Nanda* dynasty ended and the Magadhan kingdom came under the rule of Maurya lineage. The first emperor of this lineage was Candragupta. He extended the influence of Jainism in North-India to a large extent. The eastern and western sides of the country were also sufficiently influenced by him. Emperor Candragupta became a monk in the later part of his life and he went to the source India with the Ācārya Bhadrabāhu who is considered to be a *Śruta Kevalī*, i.e. one, who is equivalent to an omniscient as for as the knowledge is considered. Later King Bindusār, son of Candragupta and still later his son, Aśoka the great became the emperors of Magadha empire. It is admitted that Aśoka was a *Jama* in the beginning and followed the traditional religion. But later on, he became a Buddhist.

Some scholars however admit that he was a Jaina upto the end. According to Prof. Kern, the rules of Aśoka with reference to non-violence are more in tune with the Jaina doctrines rather than Buddhist doctrines. The heir-designate of Aśoka was his grandson-Samprati. However, some historians are of the view that Aśoka's son Kuṇāla (father of Samprati) was his successor.

According to Jinaprabha Sūri, the royal lineage of Mauryas is as below: (1). Candra-gupta (2). Bindusāra (3) Aśoka (4) Kuṇāla and (5). Samprati. But according to some Jaina scholars, Kuṇāla got blind and he, himself, asked the kingdom for his son Samprati only from his father Aśoka, the emperor.

Emperor Samprati has been called as $parama\ Arhat'$ (great devotee of the Arhats or Jains). He inspired the $Sramana\ ascetics$ to wander in the non-Aryan countries. The $Aryan\ area$ of Mahāvīra's time got sufficiently extended due to the wanderings of the monks. It seems that the concept of 25 states to be taken as $Aryan\ area$ might have, possibly, been developed during the period of Samprati.

Emperor Samprati has been stated as the supreme ruler of three sections of $Bharata\ Ksetra$ out of the total six sections. Jayacandra Vidyālankāra, a historian has written that $\bar{A}c\bar{a}rya$ Suhasti initiated Samprati in Jainism at Ujjayini. Afterwards, Samprati rendered the same service to Jainism as was done by Aśoka for Buddhism. There is no doubt that Jainism was established in the new state of Tamil Nadu (South India), whether it be during the period of Candragupta or Samprati. It is also in the period of Samprati that the Jaina preachers (or Saints) were sent in Non- $\bar{A}ryan$ countries of north-west. Samprati also built many monasteries there for the Jaina monks. It is due to the works and efforts of Aśoka and Samprati, that the $\bar{A}ryan$ culture became a powerful world culture. The impact of $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}varta$ ($\bar{A}ryan$ land) reached beyond the boundaries of $Bh\bar{a}rata-varsa$. Like Aśoka, his grandson Samprati also got many edifices constructed. Many of the important books are also said to have been written during the period of Samprati.

Some scholars opine that the inscriptions known as 'Aśokan inscriptions' were, infact, got inscribed by Samprati only. The noted astrologer Śri Sūryanārayaṇa Vyās has shown through one of his research articles that the inscriptions said to be Aśokan, in fact, owe their existence to Samprati only.

It is beyond imagination that Aśoka the grand father of Samprati had engraved so many inscriptions and Samprati, who was equally forvent for propagating religion would have remained aloof from inscriptions. Hence there is need to dive deep into this matter to segregate as to how many inscriptions belong to the period of Aśoka and how many of them belong to the period of Samprati.

1.2 Bengāl

Politically, the fate of Bengāl, in ancient times was associated with Magadha. The *Naridās* and Mauryas kept this lower valley of Ganges intact under them. However, Bengal was off their kingdom during the Kusāna period but the Guptas captured the Valley again. After the fall of Gupta royalty, many big and small kingdoms crept up in Bengal.

According to Muni Kalyāna Vijayaji, a Jaina historian, the term 'BAriga' in ancient times, referred to the south Bengal whose capital was 'Tāmralipti - currently called Tāmluka.' Later, the boundaries of Bengal expanded gradually and it become famous through five nomenclatures of its five divisions: University

- (1) BAriga (Eastern Bengal)
- (2) Samārtā (Southern Bengal)
- (3) Rādhā or Karna-Suvanna (West Bengal)
- (4) Puridru (North Bengal)
- (5) Kāmarupa (Asama).

Bhagvān Mahāvīra sojourned in the country side of Vajrabļūmi (Vīrabhūmi). It was included in non-Āryan area at that time. Prior to Bhagvān Mahāvīra there was the Pāršvan religion in the eastern Bengal. The propagation of Buddhism there is a later development. The entry of Vedic Religion there was sufficiently later than this. King Ādisura had invited five Brāhmaņas for propagation of the vedic religion of ethics.

The seventh ācārya in the Mahāvīran lineage was Šrutakevalī Bhadrabāhu. He was the son of the priest Somaśarmā of the city of Kottapura in Pauddravaradhana (North Bengal). The Godāsa branch (gaṇa) of the Jaina order was started by his disciple Goda.a. It had four sub-branches.

(1) Tāmalittiyā (2) Koḍivarisiyā (3) Puṇḍa-vaddhanīyā (4) Dāsi-khabbadiyā.

Tāmalittiyā was then associated with the main capital Tāmralipti of Bengal, the Koḍivarisiyā with the capital Koți-varșa of Rādhā area, Punda-vaddhanīyā with Paundra of North Bengal and Daasi Khabbadiya with Kherabāţā. On the basis of this information about these four branches of Godāsa we got ample information about the spreading of Jaini in Bengal.

Ācārya Kṣitimohan Sen has written in his article entitled 'Bengal and Jaina Dharma': 'The impact of Vedic religion was minimal in countries like Ariga, BAriga, Kaliriga, Magadha, Kākatā (Mithilā) and other areas where the impact of the religion of the *Tīrtharikarās* was very impressive. That is why, this area was mentioned as a condemned area in scriptures like Srutis and Smrtis etc. Evidently, one had to undertake expiation if one went on pilgrimage to that area (North India).'

Because this area got values beyond the codes of *Struties* and *Smritis*, this eastern region had developed values of mutual co-operation amity and independent thinking. That is why, many great men like Mahāvīra, Buddha and Ajīvaka-teachers etc. took birth in this State only and the great religions like Jainism, Buddhism and others originated and developed here. Though Jainism and Buddhism originated in Magadha, their propagation and promotion got an impetus in Bengal only on this basis. From this point of view Bengal and Magadha may be placed in the same category.'

'There was a time when Bengal was much influenced with Buddhism. But prior to this Jainism occupied a specific status there. Whatever evidences of earlier religions we get there-are all Jinistic. The Buddhist period followed it. The waves of resurrection of *Vedic* religion also tossed this area but orthodox Kumārila Bhaṭṭa could not secure any success there. It was only Prabhākara of vedic traditions rather than an orthodox adherent who got eminence therefore Prabhākara was a proponent and writer of independent thinking.'

'After the period of the *Tīrtharikara* (Ford-builders), there appeared four scriptural proficients. The fourth among them was Bhadrabāhu.

'Bhadrabāhu was the Guru of Candragupta Maurya. During his period, once he intaited that there would be a fierce famine lasting for twelve years. Ācārya Bhadrabāhu immeditely took decision to leave Bengal and traversed towards south and stayed there. Bhadrabāhu thought that there would be great burden on the people under famine if his big group of monks lived there. Hence he left the place of South. He breathed his last there in a holistic manner. This most eminent place of pilgrimage is now famous as 'Śravaṇa-belagolā'.

'Bengal seems to be the birth place of Bhadrabāhu. This is not only a plausible unagination. Actually We find a detailed description about it in the 'Brihat-kathā-kośa' (Compendium of Great Stories) of Harishona. Another author Ratnanandi who was a resident of Gujrat has also reiterated the 'ame fact about Bhadrabāhu. The description of contemporary Bengal given by Ratnanandi is unique in many respects'.

'According to him, Bhadrabāhu was born in the village of *Koṭivarṣa* in the *Punḍravardhana* area of Bengal. Currently, both these places are located under Bankura and Dinajapur districts. The extent of the impact of Jainism in these areas could be ascertained from the fact that all the adjoining areas of *Tāmaluk* and *Rādha* were also under the sway of Jainism. Many Jaina images were found in the districts of *Rādha*, *Medanipur*, *Mānabhūmi*, along with eastern and western Bengal. The Jaina images have also been found in *Pātakum* in the district of *Mānabhūmi*. Many Jaina images have also been discovered and colleted from underground deposits in the forests of *Sundaravana*. The *Sarāka* caste of the district of Bankura was known as Jaina Śrāvaka (Jaina laity) at that time. Thus, at one point, Bengal was the stronghold of Jainism. Later, when Buddhism effected into Bengal many *paṇḍits* of that area misconceived it as a branch of Jainism.

The Jaina church was divided into various groups and sub-groups (gana and gacchās). We can recognise them as sādhakās i.e. small groups of specialized spiritual practices. Bengal had many such groups. Punḍravardhana and Koṭivarṣa groups are quite akin to one another. But there also, two independent branches of these groups corresponding to these names existed there. In Tamralipti the Tamralipti branch was very popular in the area of KhāraVāta; there was the KhāraVāta branch. Thus many more such branches bloomed there. Accordingly, we can assert that Bengal is the state where Jainism flourished in quite earlier period of history. Here itself the finest composer of the early Jaina scriptures- Bhadrabāhu was born. Many Jina images are still lying underground there and many Jainas reside there in the country side.'

Orissa

Jainism had a high impact during 100-200 B.C. in Orissa. The *Hāthī-gumphā* inscriptions of *Khāravela* at Udavagiti mountain is a strong evidence of this fact. This historical inscription begins with the sentence, '*Namo Arahantānam*, *Namo Savva Siddhānam*'' (Bowings to the Enlightened ones: Bowing to all the liberated souls).

Uttara Pradesh

Bhagavān Pāršva belonged to *Vārāṇasi*. The two kingdoms of *Kāšī* and *Košala* were highly influenced by his religious sermons. The king Alakṣya of *Vārāṇasi* was also initiated under Lord Mahāvīra. *Uttarādhyayan* has mentioned a list of kings including the king of *Vārāṇasi* but it does not specify the name of this king. The

Sthānāriga Sūtra has enlisted the following eight names of the kings who got initiated under Mahāvīra:

1- Vīrāngaka 2- Vīra-yašā 3- Sanjaya 4- Aineyaka (The noble warrior (sāmant) king of Pradeši) 5- Seya (King of Ātmakathyā) 6- Šivā (King of Hastināpura) 7- Udrāyana (King of Sindhu-sauvīra Sindha) 8- Šankha (Kāšī-vardhana).

Among these kings, Šankha has been identified as promoter of *Kāśī*. It is possible that all these names might related to a single person. Likewise, many other Kings also got initited by Lord Mahāvīra. In the Past Mahāvīran period *Mathurā* became the stronghold of the Jains.

1.4 Mathurā

Dr. Radhākumuda Mukherjee has opined that *Mathurā* was the second important Jaina centre next to Ujjain. He has written, 'The second centre of the Jainas was in the making at *Mathurā* where many archives have been discovered which serve as an evidence of the blooming Jaina *Sarigha* there. The installation of images and temples was accomplished through donations by the devotees of this *Sarigha*. All this also indicates that the *Mathurā Sarigha* was clearly a *Śvetāribara sarigha* which was divided in many small groups and branches. The earliest archive there belongs to the ninth year of the rule of Kaniṣka (87AD). It mentions the consecration of a Jina image by a Jaina lay woman named Vikatā through the inspiration of Ācārya Nāganandi of *Koţika* group.

According to the *Sthavirāvalī* (The records Elder's), the *Koţika* group was established by the Elder Ācārya Susthita who expired in 154 BC (214 BC?) or 313 years after. Mahāvīra. Thus according to this archive, the antiquity of the *Śvetāribara* sect dates back to second century B.C. There is mention of some Jaina nuns (*Bhikṣunis*) in some of the archives of *Mathurā*. This fact also indicates that they belong to *Śvetāribara* sect as no other sect offers the right to women to get initiation in the monestic *Saṅgha*. According to Dr. V.S. Aggarwāl, 'The Jainism had a large propagation around *Mathurā* in the beginning of Christian era. This is the reason behind many images of Jaina *Tīrtharikarās* being recovered from the excavation of *Karikālī Tīta* (Kankali ridge). The names of donors are also inscribed on these images. The archives are also inscribed on the votive slabs (*āyāgapatta*) there. In one of such inscriptions, it is stated that *amohini* (a votaress) donated the image for worship. This votive slab has been installed by *amohini* and her sons-Pālaghoṣa, Pothaghoṣa and Dharaghoṣa.'

This slab also contains the sentence, Namo Arhato Vardhamanas(s)a' which denotes the relationship of the devotee with Jainism'.

Dr. V.S. Agarwāl has supported the antiquity of a stūpas (Reliquary mound) of Mathurā which was admitted by Jaina ācārya as to have been built in the hoary past. He has written that Tibetan scholar Tārānātha, author of Buddhist History has identified the sculptors of Asokan period as 'yaksās' and has stated that Mauryan Art was 'yakşar sculpture' (yakşa-kalā). The art prior to this period was believed as divinely shaped (deva-nirmita). The indication of this word can allow us to accept that the divinely sculptured Jaina stūpa might have been designed early in fifth or sixth century B.C. The Jaina scholar Jinprabha Sūri has mentioned the tradition of construction and renovation of this stupa of *Mathurā* in his book named 'vividha-tīrtha-kalpa'. According to him it was believed that this stupa of Mathurā was made of golden material in the beginning. It was believed to have been constructed by the goddess Kuberā in the memory of Bhagavan Supāršva- the seventh Jama Tirtharikara. Later, it was remodelled with the bricks during the period of twenty-third Tirtharikara. Parsvanātha. It was renovated by Bappamaha Sūri after 1300 years of the enlightenment of Lord Mahāvīra. This inscription also indicates that Jainism got related with *Mathurā* since the days of Supāršva and the Jainas began accepting this land as their holy place. Initially this stupa might have been earthen like the Buddhist stūpas prior to Mauryan period. When it was renovated for the first time, it was covered with bricks. According to the Jaina tradition, this renovation must have been done prior to the birth of Mahāvīra and during the Pāršvan period'. This statement does not seem to be an exaggeration. The second renovation of this earthen stupa was done in the second century B.C. during the Śuńga period. (Mahāvīra Jayańtī Smārīka, April, 1962, P 17-18).

From the description as above, the opinion of Dr. Vāsudeva Upādhāyāy that Jainism had expanded near *Mathurā* after the beginning of pre-Christian era does not carry much conviction.

The archaeology and inscriptions found in *Uttar-Pradeša* also give us indication about the wide expansion of Jainism there. We find many inscriptions at the base of the Jaina images (like the Buddha images) ever since the beginning of Christian era. The Lucknow museum has preserved many such images whose bases have inscriptions of 79th or 84th years of *Kaniṣka* rule. There was no dearth of such images during the Gupta period also, which have the inscription on their stand-slab. Such an image of Mahāvīra in meditational posture has been obtained from *Mathurā*. We find description of donation of a Jina image by Hari Svamiri in an inscription of *Mathurā* of Gupta Year 133 or 243 AD. During the rule of Skandagupta, the into iption of Kahauma (Gorakhapur, U.P.) describes the donation of an image of Ādinātha and a pillar by Bhadra. It reads-'Śreyo (a) rtha bhūtabhūtyai pathi niyamVātamarhatamadikārtrin.'

The inscription of *Pahāḍapura* of Gupta year 159 describes the land gift for the worship of the *Tīrthankara* in a Jaina monastery whose income was spent for the materials for worship. It reads *Viharebhagawantam* arhatam gandha-dhup-sumanadip dyartham.'

There was the second council of $\bar{A}gamic$ synod under the leadership of $\bar{a}c\bar{a}rya$ Skandila in $Mathur\bar{a}$ in the fourth century A.D.

Rajasthan

After the salvation of Bhagvān Mahāvīra, the influence of Jainism increased in the current oasis region of Rajasthana. Pandit Gauriśańkar Ojhā got a very ancient inscription in the village of Badali near Ajmer. It was inscribed in Vira *nirvān* year 84 (i.e. 443 B.C.). It countined the following words:

'Viraya bhagaVāt chaturasiti vase mamamike...

Ācārya Ratnaprabha Sūri came to Ossia or *Upakoša* (Rajasthan) in the first century of the salvation of Mahāvīra. He got 1.25 lac citizens of Ossia initiated into Jainism and named them as Osawal as a caste. This incident dates back to nearly seventy years after Mahāvīra's salvation. (i.e. 457 B.C.)

In the early medieval period, there was large influence of Jainism in the extensive area of $R\bar{a}jput\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ (Rajasthan). This is learnt through studies of many panegyrics (Prashastis). In the *Chahman* archive, the king has been said to be always engaged in religious acts. There is mention of a donation of 8 coins of 'dramma' (a unit of currency) for the worship of $T\bar{b}rthankara$ Śāntinātha to meet with the expenses incurred in. There is description of construction of a Jaina temple by the grandfather of King Talap.

The Vijhauli inscription (Epigraphica Indica, p.89.) begins with the words 'O (m) namo vītarāgāya' (Bowings to the Detached Ones). Afterwards, there is a prayer of Lord Pārśvanātha. In the Jalor inscription, there is description of donation for 'Dhvaja utsava' (Flagging festival) of Pārśvanātha (E.I.11, P. 55).

The archive of Rajadeva-ruler of *Mārwāda*, describes the donation for the Jaina monk residing in monastery and for the Mahāvīra temple also.

It has been stated on the basis of archives that the worship of Mahāvīra, Pārśvanātha and Śāntinātha was prevalent in the *Rajputānā* (Rajasthan) area. In the archives of *Paramara*, we find mention of the worship of Vṛṣabhanātha. The temple has been stated to be very beautiful and deemed to be an ornament of the earth. (*Prācīna Bhārtīya Abhīleihon Ka Adhyayan*, p. 125,4c.6).

Punjab and Sindhu-Sauvira

Bhagvāna Mahāvīra laid down the limits of sojourns of the monks in all the four directions. The western limit is *Sthunā* (*Kurukṣetra*). From this it is assumed that the area of Punjab up to *Sthunā* was under the influence of Jainism. The name of *Kuru* country is also there among the names of 25û *Āryan* countries. The *Sindhu-sauvīra* was already under the influence of Jainism or *Śramaṇa* culture from a remote past. Bhagvāna Mahāvīra had been there to initiate the king Udrāyana.

Madhya Pradesha

During the 11-12th centuries, Jainism occupied an important influence in Bundelkhand. Many indications of its impact are still found there.

The Rastrakūţa kings were followers of Jainism. They had deep relationships with the Kalācūri kings. The capitals of Kalācūri kingdom were Tripura and Ratnapur where many ancient Jaina images and remnants are still found. The studies on the archives and Jaina images in the main city of Khajurāho of the Candela kingdom are the source of in depth studies about the spread of Jainism there. The inscriptions on the stand-slab of the images demonstrate that both the rulers as well as the people believed in Jainism.

Mālwā was the main area of promotion of Jainism for centuries. There the prominence of Jainism was so strong that the *Vyavahāra Bhāṣhya* advised Jains to hold the debates with other religionists in the areas like *Mālwā*. It indicates that Jainism had an upperhand in *Mālwā* since the period of Candrapradyota the king of Ujjayini and specially the period of emperor Samprati upto the period of the compostion of *Vyavahāra Bhāṣhya*.

Sauraștra-Gujrat

Saurāṣṭra was the prominent centre of Jainism. The Jama tradition has been continuing there since the days of Bhagavān Ariṣṭanemi. The Jainism gained in strength there during the period of emperor Samprati. The Sūtrakritānga Cūrni has compared the lay follower of Saurāṣṭra as equivalent to that of Magadha. In the Jaina literature, we find the ancient name of Saurāṣṭra as Suraṣṭra.

Two canonical synods were held in the cuty of *Vallabhī*. When a synod was going on under the leadership of Ācārya Skandila in *Mathurā* in fourth century AD, another synod was in session in *Vallabhī* under the leadership of Ācārya Nāgārjuna.

In the fifth century AD (454-463 AD), another synod council was orGaṇīsed at *Vallabhī* where in the canonical literature was given the written form. This synod was led by Ācārya Devardhigaṇi Kṣamāśramaṇa. He gave prominence to the council under Ācārya Skandila of *Mathurā* and considered the *Vallabhī* Council under Nāgārjuna only as a variant reading.

The royal lineages of Gujrat like Calukya, *Rāṣṭrakuṭa*, *Cavadā*, and Solanki etc. were followers and supporters of Jaimsni. Ācārya Devardhigaṇi Kṣamāśramaṇa

Mumbai-Maharaştra

The area of Maharashtra was recorded as a non-Āryan country prior to the reign of emperor Samprati. However, the Jaina monks began sojourning in that area during his period. Later, it became a premier area for the sojourns of monks. The language of Jaina canons is highly influenced by Mahārāṣtri Prākṛt. Some linguists have called the Prākṛt language of Jaina canons as 'Jaina Mahārāṣtri Prākṛt'.

The area of *Vidarbha* was ruled by *Cālukyas* during 8-9th century AD. During the tenth century A.D., it was ruled by *Raṣṭrakuṭās*. Both these royalties were promoters of Jainism. Jainism flourished there in their reign.

Narmadā-coast

The Jaina *Purāṇas* (Mythological texts) mention the presence of Jainism on the *Narmadā* coast. After being defeated by the *Vedic Āryans*, the lay followers of Jainism migrated to the *Narmadā* coast. After some time, they spread themselves in the Northern *Bhārata*. The origin of Haihaya lineage is said to be due to the King Kartavīrya of *Mahīṣnatī* situated on the *Narmadā* banks. Ceṭaka, the principal follower of Lord Mahāvīra, belonged to this lineage only.

Thus, we can understand how Jainism gradually expanded right from Bengal (in the East) to Saurāṣṭra and Siridhu-sauvīra (in the West).

Jainism in Dakşin Bhārata

After observing the position of Jainism in North India, let us have a glance at the expansion of Jainism in South India. The Jaina Ācārya Bhadrabāhu, along with his large group of monks, had to depart from Magadha towards the *Dakṣin Bhārata*, when there was a 12-year- long famine in North India during the period of Caṅdra Gupta Maurya. Bhadrabāhu's decision to sojourn in South India makes it clear that Jainism had already had a good hold over there and Bhadrabāhu believed that their group would not face any difficulty there. Otherwise, he might not have ventured to move the whole *saṅgha* towards the south. Due to this migration towards the south, Jainism availed better opportunity for its promotion and development in that area.

The Śrāmanik culture (or the Ascetic culture) has always been more broad minded than the Vedic culture. There has been no hard and fast binding with respect to the language and the region in this culture as was prevalent in Vedic culture. The Jaina Tīrtharikarās have always made the language of the masses the medium of their sermons. The Jaina ascetics are the roaming propagators of Jainism. Whatever rough but pure and permissible foods they got once a day from the society for up keep of life, they basically repay it many fold in value, through their lofty proper teachings and sermons to the people at large. The rest of their time is devoted in writing up of creative literature for the future generation. It is improbable, that the country may not be influenced by the culture where such types of energetic and benevolent monks tread. As a result, the journey of Northern monk group towards the south created a revolutionary change in the life-style of the people of Daksin Bhārata. There was high enrichment of the literature in the South Languages. In fact, it served as a treasure-house for the Jaina acaryās and a strong preserving preserver and promoting force of Jaina culture.

2.1 Jainism in Tamil State

Dakşin Bhārata can be divided into two parts with respect to promotion of Jainism here: (i) Tamilanand (ii) Karnātaka. The Cola and Pāṇḍya kings extended their helping hands in support for Jainism in Tamil State. It is learnt from the inscription of Khāravela that the then Pāṇḍya king sent many ships full of welfare materials as a gift on the occasion of his coronation. The emperor Khāravela was a Jaina follower and so also was the Pāṇḍya king. The Pāṇḍya kings not only patronised Jainism but also adopted the Jaina concepts and practices. This led their capital Madurai to become a major centre of Jainis in Dakṣin Bhārata. The account of how a very popular arcient work in Tamil language titled Nālidiyār came into existence throws light on the influence of Jains in Tāmil State. It is mentioned there that 8000 Jaina monks traversed to Pāṇḍya country when there was famine in Uttar Bhārata. After the famine was over they opted to return back, but the Pāṇḍyan king wanted them to stay there. The monks, however, left the capital one night, but while moving out, each of them wrote a verse on a palm leaf and left the palm-leaves at the place of their sojourn. The compilation of these verses constitute the book of 'Nālidiār'. The earliest Tamil works like Silappadi kāram, Valayapati, Jīvaka-cintāmani, Kundala Kesī and Tolkappiyam are of Jaina affiliation.

Vajranandī, the disciple of Ācārya Pujyapāda, established a large Jaina group in Madurai – the capital of Pāṇdyās. The poetic book of 'Kural' is regarded as a book of ethics in Tamil Literature. This is also popularly known as 'Tamil Veda'. The author of the book (Tiruvalluvar) is also said to be the Jaina-ācārya Kundakunda. Šivaskanda Varmā Mahārāj, the king of Pallavās lineage was the disciple. The Pallavās kings ruling upto 10th century also had extended generous support for the Jainas. The Pallavās capital Kāncī was a religiously cosmopolitan city. The Chinese traveller, Huen Tsanga came to Kāncī in the seventh century. He has mentioned the Jains also among the followers of different flourishing religions he observed there. This also proves that Kāncī was a major centre of Jainism during that period. The Jaina royalties ruled there for many years. Thus, the Jains had an important participation in different parts of Tamil country. According to Sir Walter Iliot, there is a great influence of Jains on the art and sculptures of the south. More importantly, there is an abiding influence on Tamil literature. Bishop Caldwell holds that the period of the Jains in south is also the golden era of Tamil literature. The Jains had composed a vast literature in Tamil, Kannada and other popular languages of South India. This facilitated the Jaina ācāryās to come in contact with the masses and the Jaina concepts were also promoted intensively in the public.

There was a time, when the Kannada and Telugu areas even extending upto Onisa were under high influence of Jainism. Śeṣagiri Rāo has compiled the poems in a book named 'Āṇdhra Karnāṭaka Jainism' from which it is evident that in ancient times, Jainism spread over the areas of current Vizāgāpattam, Kṛṣṇa and Nellore etc. and many Jaina temples were built there.

2.2 Jainism in Karnataka

It is the history of Karnātaka in the south that accords the most important place to Jainism. This State has been the main centre of Digambar Jains since early times. In this province, Andhra rule followed the Mauryan rule. The Andhra rulers were also promoters of Jainism. After the Andhras, its north-west part was ruled by the Kadambās and the north-east part was ruled by Pallovās. There are many inscriptions of Kadambas which mention about the donations (of land etc.) to the Svetāmbara, Digambara and Vapaniya monks. The royal religion of this lineage was Jainism. It is described in the epigraphic report of 1922-23 that the earlier Kadambās and Cālukyas of Vanavāsi who ruled the Tuluva country after the Pallavās were undoubtedly Jains. Moreover, it is also possible that the earlier Pallavās were Jains. It is said that the Pallavās king, Mahendradeva Varmā composed a Sanskrit Satire 'Matta-vilāsa' (Mad Merriment). This Satire is in the form of mockery of some contemporary pseudo-religious systems prevalent in the area where the Pāśupatās, Kāpālikās and even a Buddhist monk have been subjects of mockery. The Jainas have not been mentioned there. This indicates that Mahendra Varmā was promoter of Jainism when he composed this satire. Later, he became Saivite as there is a literary evidence that Mahendra Varmā was Saivised by the noted Saiva philosopher, Appar. Like the Kadambas, the Cālukyās were also the main supporters of Jainism. The Cālukyās got constructed and also removed many. They donated lands etc. to them. They also honoured many noted Jaina poets like Ādi Pampā and others.

Besides this, we learn from the history that some women also played a great role in the spreading of Jainism. Among them, many were of royal origin while many had origins from common households.

Amongst them, the name of Kundācci the wife of Paramagula-1- is noteworthy. She got a Jaina temple constructed in the northern part of the city of Śripura. On the request of Paramagula, the Ganga king Śripuruṣa donated a village and some land for running this temple. Kundaacchi had high influence on the royal family of the *Gangas*. Another woman worthy of mentioning is Jakkiyabbe. She was the wife of Sattarasa Nāgārjuna who was the ruler of *Nāgara* Section. After the death of her husband, the king appointed Jakkiyabbe in his place. She presented herself as a highly adventurous and brave woman. She undertook the 'saṁlekhanā' i.e. fasting unto death as a holy act.

In the tenth century A.D., Mallappā was the army-chief of the Chalukya king Tailapa. His daughter Attimabbe was an ideally religious lady and she built 1501 *Jinamandiras*. She got 1500 Jina images, made of gold and precious stones at her own cost. Similarly, Pocavvarāsi, the mother of Rajendra Kongalva, got constructed a Jaina monastery (Vasadi) in 1050 A.D. Attimabbe was most respected lady in the *Cālukya* kingdom. Five *cālukya* emperors respected her as the first lady of the Empire and honoured with the title of Dānacintāmani. She patronised poets, philosophers, Dancers, Muscians. In the history of Indian Women, this Jaina lady shines like a polar star.

Malālā devi, the first wife the Later Kadamba king Kirtideva, also holds a high position among the religious women of the area. She got constructed the Pārśvanātha temple inspired by of Padmanandī Siddhāntideva had got it identified as 'Brāhmā Jinalaya' by the Brāhmana leaders whom she invited for the function. Cattaladevi also occupies a place of pride in the religious history of Santara dynasty. She belonged to the family of Sāntaras who were followers of Jainism. Their religious dedication is famous. This lady got constructed many Jaina temples in the capital town of Pombucapura (current Humcha) and also participated in many philanthropic activities. Pampādevi is another Jaina lay woman noted for her land-gifts for the Jaina Temples. Šāntalā Devi, chief queen of the Hoysala king Viṣnuvardhana, commissioned Jaina temples and died by the vow of samlekhanā.

2.3 Royal Lineages and States of South India: Their Contribution in the Promotion of Jainism

It will be worthwhile to throw some light on the political history of *Daksin Bhārata*. The Ganga kings ruled over a large part of Mysore from the fourth century AD to eleventh century AD. (The establishment of Ganga kingdom was brought about through the help of by Simha*h'andī* Ācārya). The Gangas later became the loyal feddatories of the *Rastrakutas*. The Hoysalas established a separate royalty which continued up to the eleventh century.

The earlier *Cālukyās* established their kingdom by about sixth century AD. They succeeded in establishing stringent administration. Later, however, they got split in two sectionsñ (i) Bastern *Cālukyās* and (ii) Western *Cālukyās*. The eastern *Cālukyās* ruled from 750 AD to 11th century AD. Later, their kingdom was associated by the *Colās*. In contrast, the Western *Cālukyās* were defeated by *Raṣṭrakuṭas* nearly 750 AD.

The *Rastrakutas* maintained their independence up to 973 A.D. Later, they were defeated by the Western *Cālukyās*. They, then, reined for nearly 200 years. Subsequently, they were defeated by *Kalācūris* who ruled for about 30 years. With this preliminary reference, we will describe the position of Jainism in these areas.

2.3.1 Ganga Lineage

The Gangas were Jains from the beginning to the end. One of their inscriptions clearly states that the Gangas were born to protect Jainism, and they achieved it meritoriously.

This royal lineage was established in the second century AD under the patronage of Ācārya Simha Naridī. The first king of this royalty was Mādhava who is nicknamed KonGaṇī Varmā. During the period of Muṣkāra or Mukhāra, Jainism had become virtually a state religion. All the Gdanga kings were Jains and they were great promoters of Jainism. The successor of Mādhava was Avineeta. The successor of Avineeta was Durvinita who was the disciple of Jaina Ācārya Pujyapāda who was also the renowned grammarian.

It is evident from many stone-inscriptions ranging from 4th century to 12th century AD, that the rulers of Ganga lineage erected number of Jaina temples, installed Jaina images, got prepared many caves for Sojourns of the Jaina monks, who undertook penances and gave alms to the Jaina Ācāryas.

Narsimha-II was the name of one of the sojourn Jaina kings of this lineage. His period is famous for his decisive victories over the Kings of *Cera*, *Colas* and *Pāṇḍya* lineages. He was a true follower of Jaina tenats.

As a king, he lived with high degree of grandeur and then renounced the kingdom he went to his preceptor Ajitasena at Bankapura (Dhārwar Dt.) and embraced a holy death through samādhi maraņa.

Cāmundrāya was an eminent minister of king Narsimha-II. After the demise of Narsimha, Cāmundrāya, he became the minister and army commander of Rācamalla. Many of the victories of Narsimha are because of the valour of this minister commander. He has been highly eulogized in an inscription of Śravanabelagolā (Mysore). He had been adored with many titles Viz.

Dharma-dhurandhara (Bearer of the Yoke of Religion)

Vīra-mārtarida (Sun of the heroes)

Rānarangasimha (Lion of War-drama)

Tribhuvana-vīra (Hero of the three worlds)

Vairi-kula-kalā-danda (Stick of death of enemies)

Satya-yudhisthira (as truthful as Clan Yudhishtra)

Subhata-Cūdamani (like a crown jewel of the warriors).

esity Ladmun And there are many such epithets which are testimonious to his heroism as well as religiosity. It was Cāmundarāya who got the colossal image of Gommate śvara Bāhubalī erected on the Vindhyagiri of Sravanabelagolā (Mysore) in 981 AD. This image is recognised as one of the wonders of the world. During his old age, he spent most of his time in religious activities. Cāmundarāva was not only a devout Jaina follower, but he was its in depth-scholar also. His Kannada 'Tri-sathi-Laxonā Mahāpurāna' is famous for his literary fervour. He has also a book in Sankrit, named 'Cāritra Sār' (Essence of Conduct). Cāmundarāya is identified as one of the great promoters of Jainism. The Jaina literature was also highly enriched in his time. The eminent book of Gommața-sāra, which is the essence of doctrinal texts, was composed by his preceptor Nemichdra ācārya for him. The *Prākrit* work *Gommața*sara is named after his title of *Gommața* - Raaya. It was given nomenclature after his name only. He was also the patron of the noted Kannada poet, Ranna.

The ladies of the royal family of Ganga kings are also noted for their religiosity. In one of the panegyrics, Ganga Mahādevī has been compared to 'Bhrāmarī' (black bee) longing for the lotus-like feet of the Jinendra. This lady was the wife of the king Bhujabal Ganga Hemmādi Māndhātā. The younger sister of the king Mārsimha was Suggi-pavva-rasi. She was a great devotee of Jaina monks and she always used to offer food to them.

The splendour of the Canga lineage suffered a set back when the Cola king captured its capital in 1004 AD. Though the Gangas ruled for some more time, but they could not regain their glory. This also had an adverse effect on Jainish in the area.

2.3.2 Hoyasala Lineage

A Jaina monk played an important role in the progress of this lineage. The king Sāla was the pioneer of this lineage. Once, while the king was studying under a Jaina monk Sudatta in the temple of his family goddess a lion suddenly came out of the forest and attacked Sāla. The monk gave a pole to him and said, 'Poya, Sāla', i.e. O Sāla, 'Kill the lion'. The king Sāla killed the lion. In memory of this incident, the king named himself as 'Poyasāla'. Later, the name was changed to 'HoyaSāla'.

Like the Gangas, the kings of this lineage up to Vittideva, (Bittideva) remained followers of Jainism, and they rendered memorable services to the cause of Jaina religion. Divan Bahadur Krsnasvami Ayangar, while describing the religious pravince of Mysore state, has said, 'At that time, Mysore was almost a Jaina'

state. The Gangas were followers of Jainism. However, the atmosphere became antagonistic to this religion by 1000 AD. At that time, the Colas made attempts to win over the Mysore state. As a result, a large chunk of the area of Gangavādi and Nolambāvādi was captured by them. Thus, there was a state of direct conflict between the Śaivism of Colas and Jainism of Cālukyās. When Vishņuvardhana began to participate in Mysore politics, the religious status of Mysore was highly uncertain. Though Jains had a strong position there, there were followers of Saivism and Vaisnavism also. Rāmānujacārya converted the Jaina king Vitthideva into the followee of Vaisnavism in about 1116 A.D., and he changed his name as Visnu-vardhana. His first wife Santala devī was a Jain. Her works have been highly appreciated in the inscriptions of Sravanabelgola and other places. The father of Šāntalā devī was an orthodox Śaivite and her mother was a Jain. When her parents died after her death, his son-in-law became derailed from her religion but he was still sympathetic towards Jainism. To commemorate his victories, he named the Jina Image in the temple of Hallebid as Vijaya Pāršvanātha'. His minister Gangarāja was a pillar of strength for Jaina religion. His religiousity and charity is described in many inscriptions. His wife Laxmimatī is also highly noted for promotion of Jains religion. She got erected many Jaina temples and the Gangas offered liberal land-gifts for running them. After Vitthideva, Narsingh-I became the ruler of the area. His minister Hullappa worked for the progress of Jainism in his time. He tried to regain the lost glory of Jainism in his times. However, many anti-forces like the fast growth of Vaiṣṇavism supported by Hoyasals, orGaṇīzed and stepped-up opposition of Rāmānuja and other Saivites and attack of Lingāyats resulted in the fall of Jainism in Mysore. But it should never be imagined that Jainism was completely uprooted there. However, its living spirit was lost due to gradual growth of Vaishnavism and other Vedic systems. Though numerically, the Jainas had a large following, but they could never attain the political power again. Later, the Mysore kings did not create any trouble for the Jains. Not only this, they helped them in many ways. Even the Muslim ruler like Haidar offered villages for the Jaina temples, though he suspended the festivals of Śravaṇabelagola and other areas.

2.3.3. Rāşţrakuţa Lineage

The Rāṣṭrakuṭa kings weilded great power in their times. The Jaina religion progressed much through their support. Their earlier capital was Ellora near Nāṣik. Later, they made Manyakheta as their capital. Among the Jaina kings of this lineage, the name of AmOgnavarṣa-I is noteworthy. This king was a great devotee of Digambara Jainas. At the fag end of his life, i.e renounced the kingship and got initiated into Jaina monkhood. The noted Jainācārya Jinasena was his preceptor. Guṇabhadra, the disciple of Jinasena, has written in his Uttarapurāṇa (Later Legend) that the king felt himself sanctified while venerating under his teachers lotuslike feet. This king offered donations to Jaina temples, and the Jaina literature registered notable upsurge in his times. It is understood that the names of the commentaries of Digambara Jaina doctorinal treatises as Dhavalā (Luminous) and Jayadhavalā (Victoriously Luminous) are based on the kings name only as he was called Dhavalā and Atišaya Dhavalā. The grammarian Šākatāyana composed a commentary named as AmOghavritti on his Šākatāyana Grammar. It is in his time only that the Jaina Ācārya Mahāvīra wrote a mathematical treatise named as Gaṇita-sāra-sangraha (Compendium of the Essence of Mathematics) which has described in detail the magnammity of the king AmOghavarsa in the beginning of the text. The king himself authored a book named 'Praśnottara Ratnamāla' (Gem-garland of Questions and Answers). Svāmi Jinasena also composed many treatises in his period.

Am Oghavarṣa also supported Guṇabhadra, the disciple of Jinasena. He not only completed the incomplete treatise of Ādi-purāṇa (Legend of the First) by his teacher Jinasena, but he also wrote many other treatises. Akāla-varṣa, the son of Am Oghavarṣa, had also a liking for Jainism. During his period, Guṇabhadra completed his Uttara-purāṇa (Later Legend). He also offered donations to Jaina temples and showed respect for Jaina principles. When the western Cālukyās defeated the Rastrakuṭas and terminated their rulership, the last of the kings of this lineage- Indra tried to regain his power but he failed. Finally, he got initiated into Jaina monkhood

and embraced with a holy death at Śravaṇabelagola. Lokāditya was his army commander and also the king of Vanāvāsi (Banavasi) country. Guṇabhadrācārya has described him also glorious and promoter of Jainism.

2.3.4 Kadamba Lineage

The Kadambas came into limelight from the middle of 4th century AD. Though this lineage was the follower of Brāhmaṇic religion, some of the kings of this lineage had a highly liberal religious policy while some others were patrons of Jainism also. The fifth King of this lineage, Kakutstha Varmā, offered a land-gift for the Jina temples to Śrutakīrti, a Jaina army general. The grandson of this king — Mrigeśa Varmā (5th century AD.) also offered a land-gift for worshipping the Jains in the third year of his reign. Moreover, in the fourth year, he divided a village in three parts, one part being gifted for the temple of Jinendra at Palāsika, the other part was gifted to the Śvetāmbara order of monks and the third part was gifted to the Digambara order of monks. In his eighth year of his reign, he got erected a temple at Palāsika and gifted some land to yāpaniyās and to Digambara Kurcakās.

Among the three sons of Mrigeśavarmā, Ravivarmā was his successor. *Jayakīrti*, the grandson of army commander Śrutakīrti, gifted the village of Purakhetaka to the iāpaniya monks led by Kumāradatta by the order of Ravi-varmā. His ruled between 475-513 AD.

Harivarmā, the son of Ravivarmā succeeded to his throne. On the basis of tendrings of his uncle Shivaratha, he gifted the village of Vasanta-vāṭaka to the Kurchkās of Variṣenācārya group for the services of the temple, created by Mrigeśvarma, son of the army commander Simha, in Palasika and for feeding the monks. Similarly, he gifted the village of Marde for the Ahriṣti order of monks in fifth year of his reign at the instance of the king Bhānuvarmā. The period of reign of Harivarmā is taken as 513-534 AD.

2.3.5. Cālukya Lineage

One of the branches of this lineage is called Westerr. Cālukyās. It ruled from the place called Vātapi or Bādāmi from 6th century AD to 8th century AD. Two centuries later, it ruled the area from a place called Kalyāṇi. The another branch is called the Eastern Calukyā. It ruled the country from Vengi in Āṇdhra Pradeś from 7th century to 11-12th century.

2.3.5 (a) Western Cālukyās (5-12th century AD)

The oldest land-grant inscription of 481 AD of this lineage has been discovered in *Altern*. This refers to Satyahrāya Pulakeśī. According to it, the King Pulakeśī Subjugated the *Cola*, *Cera*, Kerala, Sinhala and *Kalinga* kings and he penalized the kings of *Pāṇḍyan* and other lineages. The main object in the inscription is to indicate that during the reign of Pulakeśī, Sāmiyāra, the general of Sendraka lineage, got erected a Jaina temple in the city of *Alaktaka* nagara, same as Kisvolal or Pattadakal, with the permission of the king and he offered some land and villages for this at the time of a lunar eclipse.

Kīrtivarmā, the son of Pulakešī-I, was his successor. On the request of some of his army generals, he made some land grant for the services of the Jaina temple. Pulakešī-II was the son of Kirtivarma. An inscription of his period has been found in Aihole. It has been composed by a Jaina poet Ravi-kīrti (634). This inscription is very important for an insight into the contemporary political history. According to this inscription, Pulakešī-II was contemporary of Harṣa Vardhan, the Gupta king in North India. He defeated Harṣa Vardhan while he was moving forward towards South India to win over. Ravikirti got patronge of Pulakešī-II.He got erected a Jina temple in 634 AD (S.S. 556). Vikramāditya-II of this lineage renovated and decorated the *Dhavalā* Jaina temple in Puligere (modern Lakṣmeśvara) and he gifted some land for runring the expenses of temple and worship of the Jinas to Vijayadeva Panḍitācārya of Deva group of *Mūlasangha*. The famous Śankha-jinālaya at Puligere was the royal temple of the *Cālukyās* of *Badami*.

There were bad days beletting of *Cālukyās* after Vikramaditya-2. The Gangas and *Raṣṭrakuṭas* destroyed their kingdom. It could not regain its past glory for about 200 years. During this intervening period, *Raṣṭrakuṭas* replaced them.

By about 974 AD, Tailapa-II revived this *Cālukya* lineage and he made Kalyāna as the royal capital. This King gave patronage to the great Kannada poet Ranna. He was the contemporary of famous kings of Dhara-Munja and Bhoja. Munja was done to death by king Tailapa. His son was Satyāśraya who also became his successor. His teacher was a Jaina monk Vimal Candra Paṇḍitadeva of Kundakunda lineage of *Drāvidasangha*, Irivavedenga *Satyāśraya* reigned from 997 to 1009 AD.

Jayasimhā-III (from 1009-1042 AD) was the grandson of Tailapa-II and cousin of *Satyāśraya*. This king was the supporter of many Jaina scholars the noted ones among them being Vādirāja, Dayārāla, and Puṣpaśena Siddhāntadeva. One of the titles of Vādirāja was 'Jagadeka-malla-vādi' (The unique universal debater). This title was awarded to him by Jayasimhā-III alias Jagadekamalla Jayasimhā in his court.

Someśvara-1 (1042-1068 A.D.) was the son of Jayasimhā-III and he succeeded him to the throne. He was titled as Ahava-Malla and Trailokya-malla (Warrior of wars of Three-worlds). He reigned from (1042-1068 AD). Under his queen Ketalādevi, Cānkirājā constructed three altars in the Jaina temple, Tribhuvan-tilaka. This king awarded the title of the *Śabda-catumukha* (All-round in Literature) to Ajitasena Bhaṭṭārka. The other titles of Bhaṭṭārka were Vādibha-singh (Lion of Debaters) and Tarkika Cakarvartī (Sovereign among the Logicians).

The elder son of this King was Someśvara- who succeeded him to the throne. He also gave sufficient protection to Jainism. In 1074 AD, he offered a land grant for the Śāntinātha temple to Kulacandra Deva belonging to *Kānura gaṇa* and *Mūla-saṅgha* lineage. His reign lasted only for a short time.

The brother of Someshvar-II, Tribhuvana-malla-Viktamäditya-VI ruled for a long period, from 1076 to 1126 AD. He was very brave. The poet Bilhana has composed a poetical work named 'VikramankaDeva Carita' on the life and works of this King. One of the titles was 'Ganga-perma-nadi' because his mother was the princess of Ganga lineage. He erected a 'Chalukya Ganga-Permaanadi' temple and donated a village for its maintenance to the monk Ramasena, belonging to Pogari gaccha, Sena Gana and Mulasangha. He also got erected many Jaina temples in the Belagota area. Later they were set to fire by the Cola kings.

2.3.5 (b) Eastern Cālukyās (7th-11th century AD)

The tradition of the branch of Eastern Cālukyās starts with Kubja Viṣṇuvardhana, brother of Pulakeśī-II. He ruled from 615-623 AD. Some of the kings of this lineage gave protection to Jainism. Ammarājā Vijayāditya gifted a village to a Jaina monk of Nandi Gaccha, Yāpanīya Sangha, for running the temple named as Kataka-ābharana. (Bracelet like ornament). In addition, he offered the village of Kalācumburu to the monk Arhan-nandī of Adukali Gaccha and Bālahāri gaṇa for renovation of Sarva-lokāśraya Jira-bhavana. (Public Refuge Jira house).

2.3.6 Kalacūrus

The rule of Eastern *Cālukyās* was *eventful* the *Kālāchooris* usurped the kalyāna *Cālukyās* for a short period and they ruled between 1156 and 1180.

The great *Kālāchoori* king Vijjala was a Jain. However, his period is worth mentioning with respect to the growth of *Lingāyat* sect and *renaissance* of Śaivism. The Lingayats, under Basava, the minister of the king Vijjala, inflicted many sufferings on the Jains. It is said that he even tried unsuccessfully to kill the king Vijjala and became a martyr out of frustration.

2.3.7 Vijayanagar Kingdom

Though Jainism suffered a loss of royal patronage in South India by about 12th century AD, some magnarimous kings paid due regards to Jaina monks, teachers and leaders. Among these kings, the rulers of Vijayanagar Kingdom deserve special accolades. The state had patronized *Vedic* religion, yet kings had liberal attitude towards other religions. In fact many of the state officers holding high positions were Jains. Hence the kings themselves evinced interest to promote Jainism.

The army commander Irugappā of the king Harihara-II was a staunch Jaina followers. He successfully served the Vijaynagar kingdom for 59 years, in various high positions, and contributed to spread of Jainism in his time. The colleagues of Irugappā had a soft corner for the Jains and assisted him fully in his effort and they contributed largely in the promotion of Jainsim there.

The queens of Vijaynagaralso observed Jainistic practices. It is clear from an inscription of Sr n and Sr that the queen Bhimādevī of the king Devārāya (1406-1422 AD) was a ardent follower Jaina order.

It is learnt from an inscription of 1368 AD that the Jains appealed to the king Bukkataaya (1356-1377 AD) that the *Vaiṣṇavās*did incur injustices towards them. The king investigated the case thoroughly and got the Jains and reconciled. He also promulgated an order:

'The Jains are given back their right for worship, ringing the bell and crowning the temple as before. If any Vaiṣṇavās creates troubles to the Jains in any way, the Vaiṣṇavās should deem it as loss of Vaiṣṇavās. The Vaiṣṇavās should try to inform their followers at different places in this regard. The Vaiṣṇavās will protect the Jains until there are Sun and Moon. The Vaiṣṇavās and the Jains should be considered as Identical. They should not be taken as separate. The taxes collected from the Jains should be utilized to appoint guards for the Śravaṇabelagolā temple. These guards should be appointed by the Vaiṣṇavas. Moreover, the amount remaining after these appointments should be utilized to appoint guards for the Fravaṇabelogolā temple and for the repair and maintenance etc. of the Jaina temples. Both the communities will never skip their duties of yearly gift and they will receive respects and glory. Whosoever this order, will be taken as disloyal to the kingdom and community'.

Another inscription indicates about a dispute between the Vīršivās and the Jains. This inscription belongs to 1638 AD. The agreement on this dispute was made between Śańkharācārya and Kalahasti. The inscription begins with the commendation of Jainism and ends with the applaud of Śaivism.

Thus, we see that Jainism faced occasional difficulties, due to the gradual increase and popularity of Saivism and Vaiṣṇavism. Despite this, the existence of Jainism in South India remained intact.

3. Jainism in Foreign Land

The Jaina literature indicates that Tirthankarās R sabha, Aristanemi, Pāršva and Mahāvīra undertook wanderings in the non- $\bar{A}ryan$ lands. One of the verses of $S\bar{u}tra-krit\bar{u}nga$ indicates that the term 'non- $\bar{A}ryan$ ' refers to language different from that of the $\bar{A}ryans$. From this, we can say that these four Tirthankarās wandered in those areas also where the language of the masses was different from that $Bih\bar{u}r$ area.

Bhagavān Ŗṣabha wandered in Bahali (Bactria, *Bālakha*), Adambailla (Attock), Yavana (Greece), *Suvarnā-bhūmi* (*Sumātrā*) *Panhava* and other countries. It can not be asserted that the term '*Panhavā*' refers to ancient Parthia (a part of the current Iran) or to country of *Pallavās*. Bhagavān Ariṣṭanemi went to Malaya country in the south, when *Dvārkā* was burnt, Ariṣṭanemi was wandering in the non-*Āryan* country of *Pallavās*.

Bhagavān Pāršva wandered in about 27 countries of Kuru, Košala, Kāšī, Sumha, Avaņti, Pundra, Mālavā, Anga, BAnga, Kalinga, Pancāla, Magadha, Vidarbha, Bhadra, Dašārna, Saurashtra, Karnātāka,

Konkaṇa, Mewār, Lata, Dravida, Kāśmīr, Kacca, Śaka, Pallavās, Vātsa, Abhira and other countries. In the south, the countries of Kamāṭaka, Konkana, Pallavās, Dravida and others being taken as non-Āryan countries. The country of Śaka was also a non-Āryan country. This could be identified with Śakya country or Śakya island. The Śakya country is in the valley of Nepal where there are still some followers of Pārśva. The uncle of Bhagvān Buddha was also a votary of Pārśva. It is highly probable that Bhagvān Pārśva might have wandered in this area. Bhārata and Śakya countries have been related since the hoary past.

Bhagavan Mahāvīra also went to non-Āryan countries like Vapabhūmi, Sumhabhūmi, Draḍhabhūmi and others. He also travelled upto the eastern boundary of Bengal.

It is learnt that many Jaina monks wandered through north-west province and AfGanīstan.

The Jaina votaries went overseas for business. Many evidences are available in literature on their travel across the oceans and foreign trade. Śrilańkā also had many Jaina votaries. It is mentioned in Buddhist literature. According to Mahāvanša, there were Jaina votaries when Anuradhapura was founded in 430 B.C., Panḍuk Abhaya- the king of Anuradhapura got a residence erected for the Nirgrantha Jyotiya. The Nirgrantha Giris also lived there. According to Mahavanša, the king also got a Jaina temple made for the Nirgrantha Kumbhanda.

The Jaina monks also travelled in far distant lands. The *Pāṇḍyan* king sent his ambassadors in the court of Ahgustus Caesar in 25 BC. Some Jaina monks also accompanied the ambassa for. (Indian Historical quarterly, Vol. 2 p. 293).

According of G.F. Moore, the Jaina and Buddhist monks were there in hundreds in Philistine, Thailand, and Iraq in pre-Christian era. An innumerable number of Indian monks lived in the forests and mountains of Ethopia, Greece, Egypt, and West Asia. These monks were famous for their learning's and renunciation. These monks had even renounced clothes (Hukam candra, Abhinandan Granth, p. 374).

The *Kālandari* sect of Islam was highly impressed by Jainism. The *Kālandarās* followed four rules. (1) Sainthood (2) Purity (3) Truth and (4) Poverty. They believed in non-violence in too.

The Greek authors state that there were Digambara monks in existence in Egypt, Abycynia and Ethiopia (Asiatic Researches, 3 P.6). Ārdraka- the prince of $\bar{A}rdra$ got initiated in the order of Mahāvīra. The area of Adam port in the south of Arabistan was called ' $\bar{A}rdra$ Country'. Some scholars call the $\bar{A}rdra$ country as that area which is situated on the shore of Adriatic ocean of Italy. The Jainism was already under propagation in Bablylonia prior to advent of Buddhism. This fact is learnt from Baveru $J\bar{a}tak$. ($J\bar{a}tak$ -339).

According to Ibn-ana-Kazima, Yahiya Ibn khalida-Baramaki established good relationship with the court of Calipha and Bharau during the rule of Arabs there. He invited the Hindu, Jaina and Buddhist scholars there with due regards (Fiukamchanda Abh. Granth, p. 375).

Thus, there had been good impressions about Jainism or Sramana culture in the central Asia. The religions in force there were highly influenced by these religions. According to Van Crammer, the Samania Sect existing in the middle east is the misnomer of Sramana.

Śri Viśvambhamātha Pānḍe has written, 'The Jews were specially influenced by the renunciation of these monks. The Jews had a special sect who followed their model practices. This sect was called 'Essini'. They renounced the ritualism of the Jews. They began living in forests or mountains away from the habitation. They admitted non-violence as their main religion alike Jains. They were highly averse to meat-eating. They had rigid and restrained life. They refused even to touch the money. They regarded the help and service to the patients the poor or the weak people as the essential component of their daily routine. They recorded affection and service as better than worship. They opposed animal sacrifice tooth and nail. They sustained their lives

through physical labour only. They believed in the doctrine of non-possession. They maintained that all the property and wealth belonged to the society. In Egypt, these austerites were called 'Therapute'. The meaning of this word is 'Silent non-possessed'. (Hukamchand Abh. Grauth, p. 374). Kālakācārya went to Suvarnabhūmi (Sumatra) in first century A.D. His disciple Śraman Sagar was already there alongwith his group. (Uttarādhyayana Niryukti, Verse 120). The islands of Kraunca, Sinhala and Hansa had foot prints of Lord Sumatinātha. The country of Parakar and Kasanda had the images of Lord RsabhaDeva. (Vividha Tīrtha Kalpa, p. 85). We can infer from the above brief description that Jainism was preached even in countries beyond Bhārata, though it could not be stabilised due to negligence by the monks and other unfavourable conditions.

Questions

A. Essay type questions

ed University Ladmin Write down an essay on the spread of Jainism in North India.

B. Short answer-questions

Write down your answer in 200 words:

Jainism in Foreign countries.

Jainism in Daksin Bhārata.

C. Objective questions

- 1. Tick the correct alternative and fill up the blanks.
- They obstructed the Spread of Jainism -
 - (a) Worldly ideology (b) Difficult practices (c) Detachmental thoughts (d) None of the above
- 2. Kalpaka was
 - a) Nanda king b) Śiśunāga king c) Minister of Nanda king d) None of the above
- One has been stated as Parama Arhat 3.
- (a) Samrāt Samprati
- (b) Samrāt Aśoka (c) Samrāt Kunala (d) Samrāt Vindusaara.
- 4. The mentor of Candragupus was
 - (a) Prabhākara (b) Kumārila
- (c) Bhadrabāhu
- (d) Somadeva Süri
- 5. The source of information about the spread of Jainism in Orissa is Inscriptions of Hathīgumphā, Iron Pillar, Alahabad Pillar, None of the above.
- (1) The Śvetāmbara Jaina Synod was or Ganīzed in Vālabhi in fourth century under the leadership of
- Due to the fierce famine, the Ācārya ... moved from north India towards south India. 2.
- The treatise ...was composed by writing one verse each on one Palm leaf each.
- The Jaina monk contributed in the progress of *Hoyasala* dynasty.
- There were followers of in Śakyabhūmi Nepal.

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Compiled By: Dr. Anand Prakash Tripathi.

LESSON 6

SPECIAL FEATURES OF JAINA CULTURE

The ancient history of India as it is known today is quite incomplete. It is surprising to note that some of the facts are prevailing in totally erroneous form. In this respect when we observe the specialities of Jaina culture, we realize that Jainism is not represented properly. Some historians believe that Vaidika culture was the only one ancient culture of India. Jaina, Buddhist, and other religions originated as its branches. Though now it is very well established, with ample evidences that two independent schools of thought viz. Vaidika culture and Sramana culture have been prevailing since ancient times. Vaidika culture has been related to Veda and its associated literature *Upaniṣada*, *Brāhmaŋ*-grantha etc. Śramaṇa culture is totally independent of it. One of the branches of the Śramana culture is - Jaina. Jaina culture is one of the developed forms of more ancient Śramana culture only. Therefore all the fundamental elements of Śramana school of thought are found in Jaina culture. The distinct diversity between them comes out very clearly by comparing both the Vaidika and Sramana cultures. In the earlier lessons you had learned about the historical situation existing during R sabha-period. The historical research very clearly establishes that R abha was the first originator of the Sramana culture. The tradition of Tirthankara beginning from R sabha being in pre-historical period, the information about historical situation of that time can not be known. But it is very clear that this tradition was the carrier of the Śramana culture. The original source of Vaidika culture was absolutely distinct. The origin of Veda is not more ancient than 4000 B.C. from historical vie point. In this situation Sramana culture definitely gets proved to be more ancient than Vaidika culture. Origin of Vaidika culture is connected to the origin of $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}s$ whose arrival in India is possibly from outside as per historical viewpoint. Under any circumstances it is very clear that compared to Sramana culture the period of Āryās is of much later date. Thus it appears that there is a great difference between the origins of both the Sramana culture and the Vaidika culture.

There is a big difference between these two cultures on the basis of principles and doctrines also. The primary difference is — While in the area of contemplation, the Śramaṇa culture has given significant importance to the identities of 'ātmā' (soul), 'parmāimā' (liberated soul) karma etc, the Vaidika culture has considered god-goddesses, nature, household discipline etc of prime importance. In this lesson we would very minutely observe the separate characteristics of Jaina culture (also known as 'Nirgrantha-culture in the ancient period), which are well-developed and flourished branch of Śramaṇa culture. And also how relevant these specialties are in the context of present era.

Definition and scope

The imprint that develops because of regular and ceaseless practice in a society is culture. For this, knowledge of education, morality, sanctity of behavior, literature, science, etc, and a code of conduct in the society are expected. F. J. Brown in his book 'Educational Sociology' defining culture writes, 'culture is the framework of complete conduct of human being that is affected to some extent by physical limitation. This limitation can be of both the types, natural and human-created. Mainly this framework is affected by well-determined thinking, activities, values, and habits. Its development could be done by the society for the fulfillment of its own necessities'. On this basis Edward Tyler the author of 'primitive culture' has ascertained the culture as, acquired wisdom of knowledge, faith, art, literature, and customs put together. And has said that the man being a member of society attains culture by combining all these. The heart of the Jaina culture consists of obstructing element, abstinence of all the desires, destruction of birth cycle, and liberation of soul.

It is necessary to be introvert to make the activities as pure as possible in the social life. Activity and retirement could be reconciled up to a certain limit.

The main aim of Jaina culture is to bestow upon an individual and the society a non-violent, peace loving, fearless, loving and courteous life style. All the scriptures and the preaching of Jainācāryās are engaged in establishing equanimity in place of enmity. Tolerance to different thinking is the philosophy of life of this culture. Non-absolutism is its manifestation. We should understand each-other's thinking when we live in a society. We should not consider ourselves as perfect. This is what 'syādavāda' is. The culture built upon these principles can establish universal love, friendship, and brotherhood. Mutual confidence is the foundation of this culture. Therefore the Jaina religion has withstood the beatings of the time since the ancient time till today, and its culture has remained unsubdued. This is one of the strong supports of Indian culture. The Indian culture could be understood by understanding Jaina culture. The main contribution of Jaina culture can be seen in the fields of literature, religion, philosophy, art, language, history, archeology etc. There are several crores of followers of Jaina religion in India. The works of this ancient religion are found in almost all languages of India. From these we can understand the comprehensive importance of the Jaina culture.

Jainas have made their culture generous and broad-minded. This is a matter of pride for them and is worth observing by the other societies. The Jaina society has never been a prey to narrow mindedness in the development of its thinking and arrangement of lifestyle. The Jainism have reached of every corner of the country. The reason is that the birthplaces of *Tirtharikara*, the area of their travelling, the places of their *nirvāṇ* are all wide spread from Bengal and *Bihār* in the east, from UP in the north to Gujarat and *Saurāṣṭra* in the west. In the later period many Ācārya made South India also the area of their travelling. There have been several great Ācārya and great scholar of Jaina religion in the far interior of Tamilnad. Even today their places and their ancient temples are marked by their remains. The huge artistic idols of Bāhubalī in *Śravaṇabelgola* and Karkala in Karnataka are making the country proud of its ancient art. It can be said that the whole country, not only from political viewpoint but also according to its the most ancient religious traditions, has become a subject of unity and devotion for Jainas.

It is not that patriotism is limited only up to the land. Jainas have the same generous policy towards the feelings of the people. Consider the question of language. Sanskrit language has been respected very much in *Vaidika* tradition. The literary creations always have been made in it, believing it to be 'daivi vāk' (language of gods). Jaina Tīrtharikara Lord Mahāvīra made use of the simple language Arddhamāgadhi with a desire to benefit the common people. His Ganadhara made compilation of his preaching in that language. Jainas have always respected that language and its literature. Also their feeling has never been obstruction to giving justification to popular languages. Whenever Jainācārya went anywhere for spreading the religion, they made the prevailing popular languages of that area as the medium of their literary works. This is the reason why the various languages of different places and different times such as 'sauraseni', 'maharastri', 'apabhramsa' etc Prākrit languages have found full representation in the Jaina literature. Since the first century AD till today thousands of works are composed in Sanskrit by Jainācārya, wherein the commentary literature of Āgamā is primary. The most ancient literature of Hindi, Gujarātī, Rājasthānī and such modern languages is found to be of Jainas. Not only that but also the credit of creating literature in the far off southern languages like Tamil and Kannada in ancient times can possibly be given to Jainas. Thus Jainas have never shown partiality to any one provincial language. But they have always adopted with the same honour languages from all over the country. And its vast literature is evidence for this. The Jaina religion has not been indifferent to religious popular beliefs either. But they have been properly included at suitable places within own traditions. People have great reverence for Rāma-Laxamaṇa and Kṛṣṇa-Bāladeo and believe them to be incarnation of god. Jainas have given them place of honour among the 'Trisathi Sālākā Purusa' in line with Tīrthankara and also have depicted their biographies in Jaina Purāņs.

The importance given to non-violence by the Jaina religion is also a result of this philosophy. There are infinite living beings in the world. There is a soul (life) in each one of them. These souls are seen in various conditions, in various species, in various bodies and at various stages of knowledge as the results of the power of the *karma* they have bound. But all of them have capability to attain the Supreme form of the soul, in other words to become 'paramātmā' by developing their knowledge. Thus all the living beings are identical in the form of their potential power. Therefore they should have mutual respect, faith and co-operation. This is 'republicanism' of the Jaina religion. But to differentiate it from today's republican philosophy, it should be called 'philosophy for the benevolence of all living beings'. For the concept of republicanism, which is limited to only human society, Jaina religion expands it further to make it vast enough to include all the living beings.

1. Origin

Jaina culture is culture of 'vrātya' (people following vows). Its root is 'vrata' (vow). Vow means 'saṁyama' (restraint) and 'saṁvara' (inhibition). It is an indicator of proximity to the soul and indifference to the outer world. Prominent element of 'vrata' is 'tapa' (penance). The foundation of its origin is dedication to spiritual life.

Jaina tradition accepts penance in the form of non-violence, harmony, friendship, and forgiveness. Lord Mahāvīra has protested against nescient penance in the same proportion as he has advocated the penance with knowledge. Penance to the extent that it should not become obstruction in practicing non-violence is essential for all practitioners of spiritual discipline. Extensive penance is for those who have very strong willpower or who feel intense alienation towards the body. The word 'Nirgraritha' (without possession) is the symbol of relinquishment of possessiveness. And the word 'Jaina' (victorious) is the symbol of victory over passions. Thus Jaina culture is manifested in different era by diverse names representing spirituality, relinquishment, tolerance, non-violence, harmony, friendship, forgiveness, non-possession and 'ātma-vijaya' (victory of soul).

In one word Jaina culture is 'tyāga-mūlaka' (based upon relinquishment). The most valuable gift of Jaina culture is 'saṁyama' (restraint). Do not conceive joy and suffering as progress and regress of life. 'saṁyama' (restraint) is the progress of life, and 'asaṁyama' (non-restraint) is the regress of life. A non-restraint person may give or gain some worldly advantage, but he can not abandon deceit, cruelty, and exploitation. While a restraint person may not give or gain some worldly advantage, but he would be still non-deceit, compassionate, and away from exploitation.

To make ones life highly cultural the following noble traits or attitudes are required.

'Ārjava' or 'rjubhāva' that is simplicity or straight forwardness that increases confidence.

'Mārdava' that is sense of compassion that increases friendship.

'Lāgava' that is tendemess that increases kindness.

Forgiveness that increases tolerance.

Spirituality or freedom from defilement that increases unity.

Truth or honesty that increases fearlessness.

'Mādhyasthya' or unprejudiced or open-mindedness that increases the power of acceptance of truth.

All these require restraint. All these are possible if one practice restraint. Jaina culture believes this fact to be the center of perfectness. Non-violence, which is accepted as the supreme boon of Jaina philosophers, is its outcome. Non-violence and salvation ('mukti') are the two lines of enlightenment through which the opportunity to observe the true values of life is obtained.

When non-violence, tolerance to hardship and salvation or emancipation become takes shape of life then there is automatic development evolution of an individual, a society, and a country. There is a common belief that Jaina culture is symbol of pessimism or escapism. But this is not a complete thinking. Jaina culture is based upon *tatvavāda* (the philosophy of truth). In 'kalpanāvāda' (8 megination) there is only optimism, while in 'tatvavāda' both the optimism and the pessimism are properly evaluated.

Jainācārya have been very generous in spiritual thinking. They gave only spiritual leadership to their followers. They were never bound within non-changing social order. The social order was left safely in the hands of sociologists. In the area of unity of spiritual thinking, the Jaina society has its own separate speciality. Otherwise there is no other peculiarity in it as compared to general Indian society. The formation of Jaina culture has always been extensive. Its doors are open for all. The reason for the extensive viewpoint is absence of sectarianism and communalism. From customary viewpoint Jainas have sects, but they have not bound the religion with sect. They give importance to Jainism and not to sect. The meaning of Jainism is to endeavor for 'samyak-darśana', (right faith), 'samyak-jñāna' (right knowledge), and 'samayak-cāritra' (right conduct).

2. Non-violence and penance

The specialties seen in the Jaina culture in context with common Indian culture are mostly related to religion and philosophy directly or indirectly. In short the specialties are nonviolence, restraint, and penance in conduct, and non-absolutism in thought. The practice of nonviolence, restraint, and penance is pre Vaidika. Modern historians are connecting it with *Hadappa-Mohan-jo-Dero* culture. There is no wonder that the religion that was researched and developed by Mahāvīra during sixth century before Christ, and the tradition of which was nourished by Pārśvanātha during eighth-ninth century before Christ and by Neminātha during Mahābhārat period, was present during Hadappa-Mohan-jo-Dero culture. There were 23 Tīrthankara before Mahāvīra. Historical existence of 23rd *Tīrtharikara* Pāršvanātha has been proved. 22nd *Tīrtharikara* Neminātha was contemporary of Kṛṣṇa, therefore his historical existence is also possible. There were 21 Tīrtharikara before him. Story of the first *Tirthankara* R sabhadeo is found in *Visnu-Purāna* and *BhāgaVāt-Purān*. Here he has been referred to as ' $mah\bar{a}yog\bar{t}$ ' and the promoter of the path of 'yoga' and 'tapa' (penance). Reference of Risabhadeo is also found in Vedās. Some scholars believe that Vātarasan Muni of Vedās could be of Resabhadeo's tradition. In spite of his reference in Vedās, Resabhadeo can not be a representative of Veda tradition. Because the path of nonviolence and 'tapa' of which he is leader is not mentioned in Vedās; also because nonviolence and 'kricch-sāihanā' can not match with 'praynti-mārga' of Rgayeda. Later on of course, they are included in *Upanisada*. This could be possibly because of influence of Risabha and his monks.

Lord Mahāvīra established several moral values for the society. Two of them were even more important from socio-political viewpoint:

'Anākramana', that is abstinence of willful violence.

'Icchhā-parimāṇa', that is limitation of possession.

There are the main slogans of democracy and socialism. Šri Ādityanātha Jhā, vice-chancellor of Vārāṇasi Sanskrit Vishvavidyalaya has expressed this fact in the following words: 'The union of intellect and character in Indian life is a special gift from Jainas and Buddhists'. According to Jaina philosophy, blind following of the tradition is not the right path. Contrary to argument but in agreement with reasoning and intelligently bālanced viewpoint is the right path. Achievement of this viewpoint is possible only when the false faith is totally abolished. The right conduct can be established only on this intellectual foundation with the strength of nonviolence, truth, non-stealing, celibacy, and non-possession.

'The code of conduct of the Jaina religion is also identical to the beliefs of a republic. By birth all persons are social beings and each individual can become a monk or a householder as per his capability and liking.'

'The Jaina concept of 'aparigraha' (non-possession) is also noteworthy. Under present circumstances it is more important to give emphasis to this concept as it was given by Jaina thinkers in the ancient time. Possibly this were the first proclamation of thinkers of socialistic society'.

The seeds of the following thoughts viz. the capability of developing infinite power in each soul, equality of all souls, forgiveness, friendship, non-insistence of own thinking, etc were sown by the Jaina religion. Today, because of *Mahātmā Gāndhi* they are blooming, not only in all India but also in international politics.

Jaina culture in India is very ancient and also very widespread. Then why the population of its followers is very small? The reason may be that, many supporters of Jainism have become followers of Vaisnava religion. Because perceiving that nonviolence, restraint, purity of conduct etc have become more popular in that religion, they are intermingled there and have lost their separate identity. In today's Hindu society, compared to rites and rituals of 'yajĥa' (sacrifice), and caste system and 'āśhrama' system, more importance and emphasis is on 'vrata' (abstinence), fast, and rituals of nonviolent thinking. It can be said that it is less 'Vaidika' but more 'Śramanika'.

1. Anekānta (non-absolutism)

There are two sides of culture: thinking, and conduct. Jaina culture is having nonviolence on both its sides. In the area of conduct nonviolence, restraint and penance are specialties of Jaina religion. Similarly in the area of thinking, non-absolutism is a special contribution of Jaina religion. Non-absolutism is philosophical or intellectual nonviolence. There is tension between some nations and warnings of war are seen. Terrorism is spread all over the world. The main reason for this is insistence on one's own thinking and total indifference towards the other's thinking. The truth is that no ism of no particular thought is completely right or wrong. A thing seen from one viewpoint looks different when looked at from a different viewpoint. Truth has many facets. Giving due consideration to other facets while looking at a particular facet is non-absolutism. This is a path of mutual conciliation. The follower of this path does not get upset because of opposition instead he searches for conciliation. Thus, today in the atmosphere of hostility and opposition in all the direction non-absolutism shows the path of conciliation and co-existence.

2. Literature

Together with conduct and thinking, literature is also an important part of culture. Jainas have contributed considerably in the area of iterature. Lord Mahāvīra and Lord Buddha observed that the learned people who guide the society have their communication in Sanskrit language, which is not a language of the common people. They wanted to address the masses of people. They wanted the people to turn away from the external rites and rituals and adopt the conduct-based and beneficial religion. For this purpose they made use of 'Prākṛit' (Ardhamāgadhī) the mass-language of that time. Their Gaṇadhara and the later acāryas also adopted this tradition. As a result the later generations received a vast religious literary-treasure in Prākṛit (Ardhamāgadhī and Śaursənī) in the form of cultural inheritance. This literature continued to develop till the medieval time through commentaries and elucidation. This tradition continued even in 'apabhramśa' period after the 'prākṛit-period'. It influenced the later thinkers and poets.

Together with the creation of literature, the protection of literature is also a strong side of Jaina culture. Writing the books in beautiful scripts, making beautiful drawings in the margins of the manuscripts and storing and protecting the manuscripts are are given special importance by Jainas. Even today plenty of manuscripts are lying in many stores and libraries. Many of the manuscripts are awaiting their restoration by some scholars.

3. Art

Art, like literature, is also an indivisible part of culture. Jaina's have made special contributions to the arts of painting, idol making, and architecture. A list of 72 arts is found in Jaina literature. The beginning of the list is with the art of handwriting and it ends with 'śakunaruta' the art of interpreting the sounds of birds for good or bad omens. Arithmetic is also on this list. In short 'the arts' can be described in the following one sentence only. 'That which begins with script and ends with 'śakunaruta and has arithmetic as principal'.

According to Jaina tradition the beginning of script was done by Lord R sabhadeo. First of all he gave the knowledge of script to his daughter Brāhmī. In *Bhagavatī Bhāṣya* Ācāryaśrī Mahāprajñaji writes: 'As per the references in context with prehistoric Jaina literature, the Brāhmī script is connected to Lord R sabha. He taught Brāhmī eighteen scripts by right hand and by his left hand he taught arithmetic to Sundarī'. *Digambar* Ācārya Jinasena has also mentioned this. It is believed that because the script was taught to Brāhmī its name became 'Brāhmī'. This is a debatable point. Brāhmī was taught 18 scripts, out of which only one is called as Brāhmī. All the rest have their independent names. In *Samavāo* 18 types of *Brahmī* script are mentioned. Viz. 1. *Brāhmī*, 2. *Yavanānī*, 3. *Dosauriyā*, 4. *Kharoṣtrikā*, 5. *Kharaśahikā*, 6. *Prabharājikā*, 7. *Ucchatarikā*, 8. *Advaripriṣṭikā*, 9. *BhagaVāti tikā*, 10. Vainatiki, 11. *Ninhavikā*, 12. *Ankalipī*, 13. *Gaṇitalipī*, 14. *Gaṇdharvalipī*, 15. *Ādarśalipī*, 16. *Maheśvarī*, 17. *Dravidī*, 18. *Polindī*.

It can be concluded from the above that Brāhmī is the first or the most ancient script. Other scripts are developed on the basis of Brāhmī script. Therefore the rest 17 scripts are called the family of Brāhmī script. The Lord taught 18 scripts to his daughter and therefore to say that because of that the name 'Brāhmī script' became prevalent does not seem logical.

Several suppositions about the naming of Brāhmī script are found. But it is difficult to say anything on historical basis. But atleast it can be said that the *Prākṛit* language and Brāhmī script have been mutually related. 'Bhaṣā-Ārya' (master of language) are those who speak *Ardhamāgadhi* (*Prākṛit*) and whose script is Brāhmī. Like Jaina Ācāryās have made *Prākṛit* their medium. In the background of this belief there could be the close relation between the scripts and the writings and the Jaina tradition. Even today at several places the teacher while teaching the first alphabet to a child holds his hand and writes 'om namo siddhāṇaṃ'. This could be the derived form of 'om namaḥ siðhebhyaḥ'. To begin with prayer to Siddhas proves the close relationship between the scripts and the writings and the Jaina tradition.

In Agamas references are found to wall paintings and paintings on board in different colors expressing movements and feelings. The very finest of Jaina art of painting is found in the miniature paintings made in the margins of the manuscripts. These types of paintings are found on palm-leaves, in the margins of manuscripts, and in the blank space left for the binding. And also specimens of paintings on wooden boards and clothes are found.

Jaina society has created temples and idols on a very large scale and continues to do even today. Jainas, like Buddhist have an ancient tradition of creating 'stūpa' and 'caitya'. The Jaina stūpa found in *Mathurā* is a very ancient one. There is a 57 feet tall, huge, and majestic idol of *Gommateśvara* in Śramaṇabelgolā in the state of Karnāṇaka. Jainas also have carved caves in the mountains. One of the examples is *Hāthigumfā* cave (2nd century BC) in Orissa. There are also caves made by Jainas in *Nāgārjunī* Mountains in *Bihār*.

4. Vrata (Religious vow)

'Vrata' has been given much importance in the Śramaṇa tradition. All the human beings are divided into three categories viz. bāla, paṇḍita, and bālapaṇḍita. The one who does not observe any 'vrata' is called bāla. The one who observes the 'mahāvrata' (great vows) is called paṇḍita. And the one who observes 'anuvrata' (small vows) meaning partial 'vrata' is called bālapaṇḍita.

Dr. Herman Jacobi has proposed a possibility that Jainas have borrowed their 'vratās' from 'saṅyāsī' (Brāhmaṇas). Brāhmaṇa saṅyāsīs were observing mainly the following five 'vratās': nonviolence, truth, non-stealing, contentment and bond-free. Dr. Jacobi thinks that the concept of Jaina-'mahāvrata' is based upon the said five 'vratās'. This possibility is based upon only imagination. There is no real base. If we make a historical study of the tradition of 'vrata', then we will not find the roots of nonviolence etc 'vrata' in Brāhmaṇa-tradition. Dr. Jacobi has proposed this possibility on the basis of 'vratās' referred to in Baudhayāna. But the question is how can 'vratās' be there in it?

Before we look for an answer to this question, it is necessary to contemplate over 'samnyās āśrama'; because there is an unbroken relation between 'vrata' and 'samnyās' (renouncing worldly life). Among Vaidika literature the most ancient work is Veda. The word 'āśrama' is not used there. It is also not mentioned anywhere in Brāhmaṇa and Āraṇyaka works. In Brihadāraṇyaka Upaniṣada 'samnyās' is described as the stage after 'ātma-jijñāsā' (inquest for the soul). There it is written: 'Brāhmaṇs desire to know this soul through the study of Vedās, yajñas (sacrifice), charity and 'niṣkāma-tapa' (penance without expectation of returns). After knowing all these, they become monks. The recluse desiring this knowledge of soul renounces everything and goes away to become a 'samnyāsī' (monk). Because of this 'sanyāsa', the earlier scholar did not desire for progeny (and also for penance etc with expectation of returns). They thought, 'we, who have desired 'ātmaloka' (enlightenment of soul) have nothing to do with progeny'. Thus, they going away from 'putraiṣaṇā' (desire for son), 'vittaiṣaṇā' (desire for wealth), and 'lokaiṣaṇā' (desire for worldly pleasures) live a life of a recluse (go for begging)'.

In the above quotation the last sentence draws attention to *Nivartaka* tradition. *Vaidika* tradition has never been against 'lokaiṣaṇā'; and 'putraiṣaṇā' has been its prime theme. Here it is indicated that what is 'putraiṣaṇā' is 'vittaiṣaṇa', and what is 'vittaiṣaṇa' is 'lokaiṣaṇa'.

One of the main slogan of Śramaṇa tradition is, 'no logassasesaṇam chare' meaning do not have 'lokaiśaṇā'. In Uttarādhyayan Sūtra, follower of Brāhnaṇ tradition Bhṛgu Purohit told his sons, 'first produce sons, then become a hermit'. But his sons were already acquainted with Śramaṇa tradition. Therefore they replied, 'father! A son is not a protector therefore producing a son can not be an essential duty'. Vaidik concept is exactly opposite of this. In Taittarīṇa Saṃhitā it is said that, 'A Brāhmaṇa acquiring a birth is born with three obligations. These three obligations are - 'rṣiṇṇa', (obligation to Rṣis) 'deoṇṇa' (obligation to gods) and 'pitṇṇa' (obligation to ancestors). The tirst obligation is satisfied by celibacy, the second by sacrifice, and the last by progeny. One who is a father of a son and a performer of sacrifice and observer of celibacy is free from the above three obligations'. Similarly in Aitareya Brāhmaṇ it is said, 'King Hariscandra, son of king Vedhasa of Ikṣvāku dynasty had no children. He had hundred wives but no child. Two riṣis viz. Para Vāta and Nārada were staying in his house. He asked Nārada, 'everyone, learned or not, desires a son. Oh Nārada! Tell me what is the advantage of having a son?' Nārada replied to this one question in ten stanzas. The first stanza is as follows: 'If the father when alive sees the face of his son then he is free from his obligation, and becomes immortal'. (Attareya Brāhmaṇa, part 7, chapter 3).

From the above quotations, it is clear that in *Śramaṇa* tradition 'saṅyāsa' is the prime aspect and in *Vaidika* tradition the main aspect is to produce a son. In this context this particular sentence in *Upaniṣada* is very important. 'tatpurve putra kāmaye'.

'Saṅyāsa' in Jaina philosophy is totally and completely based upon spirituality. Without 'ātmā-jijñāsā' (inquest for the soul) there is no question for 'saṅyāsa'. In the light of this concept we can see that 'saṅyāsa' based on 'ātmā-jijñāsā' is a very old Śramaṇa tradition. (This is indicated in Brihadāraṇyaka Upaniṣada).

Śramaṇa-confraternity was very well or Gaṇīsed during Lord Pārśvanātha's period. *Upaniṣadas* were not created before that Lord Pārśvanātha period was 10th and 9th century BC. While the creation of *Upaniṣadas* was probably between 800 BC to 300 BC.

Under this circumstances it is not difficult to believe that *Śramaņa* religion is not indebted to *Vaidika* religion.

There is no reference of 'mahāvrata' in Veda, Brāhmaṇ, or Ārṇyaka literature. Those Upaniṣadas Purāṇa and Smṛtis where it is referred to are all the works of later period than Lord Pārśvanātha. Therefore to believe that the earlier 'Vrata' concept was influenced by the later one is not natural or proper. Lord Mahāvīra was later Tīrtharikara than Lord Pārśvanātha. He had developed 'vrata' of Lord Pārśvanātha only. He did not follow any other tradition in this subject. After him 'mahavrata' became so much wide spread that it is a problem to look for its main source. There have been some attempts in this direction. Their findings are as follows. Lord Pārśvanātha's religion resulted into five 'mahavratās' of Lord Mahāvīra. The same religion appeared in 'aṣṭārigika mārga' of Buddha, and in the 'yama-niyama' of Yoga in Gandhiji's 'āśrama-dharma' hence mainly 'cāturyāma' (four great vows) religion is seen.

Today Hindutva and Jaina religion are so much inter-mingled and became uniform that a common Hindu does not even know that nonviolence, truth, non-stealing, celibacy and non-possession are preaching of Jaina religion and not of Hindutva.

5. Saáyāsa and Śrāmaŋya (monkhood)

'Sanyāsa' has been a very important element of Śramaṇa tradition. Destructive Śramaṇa like Ajitakeśakambāla was also a 'samnyāsī'. Institution of 'sanyāsa' in Vaidika tradition was accepted in the time of Upaniṣada. In the time of Veda, celibacy and householder were the only two institutions. During 'Āranyaka-kāla' 'nyāsa' ('sanyāsa') was said to be the cause for emancipation and it was considered to be superior to truth, penance, 'dama' (enduring pain), 'śama' (control over senses), charity, duty, progeny-production, offering oblations to the consecrated fire, sacrifice and monthly prayers (Taittirīyāraṇyaka 1, Anuvak 62, pp.766). But there is no mention of the people who accepted it. Some vague description of institution of 'āśrama' is found in 'Chāndogya Upaniṣada'. There it is written There are three pillars of religion, – sacrifice, learning, and charity.

'Sanyāsa' is mentioned in Brihadāraṇyaka Upaniṣada. In Jabalopaniṣada, we find a clear arrangement of four 'āśramās'. There it is clearly explained that after completing the first celibacy āśrama, next one is householder then 'vānprastha' and then the last is to renounce the worldly life completely. This is the conventional arrangement. But if the desire of renouncing is very strong in early life then 'saṅyāsa' can be accepted during any of the earlier three 'āśramās'. This is an optional arrangement.

Even though there exists, the arrangement of four 'āśrama' the authors of religious and ethical books have given importance to the third householder's āśrama. (See Vaśiṣṭa Dharmaśastra 7/1/2 and 8/14-15)

The belief that in fact there is only one āśrama - grihasthāśrama (householder), is stable at the root of the Vaidika tradition. In Baudhayana DhamaSūtra it is written, 'The son of Prahalād has made the arrangement of different 'āśrama' because of the competition with gods; therefore wise people should not accept it'. In Uttarādhyayana 9/42-44 in a dialogue between Indra and Rājṛṣi nami, Indra is a spokesman of Brāhmaṇ-tradition and Nami is that of śramaṇa-tradition. In this background Indra in guise of a Brāhmaṇa told Neminātha. 'Rājṛṣi! Householder is a complete 'āśrama'. Your leaving this and going to another 'āśrama' is not proper. You stay here and do religious activities'. The reply to this given by Rājṛṣi Nami is the thinking of Śramaṇa tradition. He said, 'Brāhmaṇa! A house holder who is regularly fasting for one month repeatedly after ending each fast with food equal to the quantity of food that can be put on the point of a pin, is not even comparable to sixteenth part of the religion of a monk.'

Only two options of living a life are acceptable in *Śramaṇa* tradition - Householder and *Śramaṇa*. Only a householder can become a *Śramaṇa*. The beginning of life is always in the form of a householder. The

monkshood is the form that is accepted by discretion for achieving a goal. 'All the 'āśramī' get settled in 'grihastha āśrama'.' If this statement of Vaśiṣḥṭa means that 'grihastha āśrama' is the root of all 'āśrama', then it is acceptable in Śramaṇa tradition also. Vaṣiṣṭa has further written, 'Like all living beings live with the support of mother, similarly all the monks live with the support of householders.' This fact is accepted in Uttarādhyayana in the form of 'yācanā parīṣaha' (hardships of begging). 'Oh! How difficult is the daily routine of a monk. That he has to get everything by begging; he does not have anything without begging'.

But Śramaṇa tradition does not agree with Vaidika tradition's opinion that 'grhastha āśrama' is superior to 'saṅyāsa' in comparison. Therefore it is said in Uttarādhyayana (2/29), 'For a monk who has entered the life of non-possession, it is not easy to beg from a householder. Therefore the monk should not think that household is superior'. The basic belief of Jaina religion is that, though 'avrata' (non-vow) is enticing but it is bondage; and 'vrata' is benedicting and emancipation. A person with vows attains heaven, he may be a monk or a householder. (Uttara. 5/22) 'A devotee householder should observe the rites of 'grhastha-sāmāyika'. He should not leave even one day-night observing 'pauṣadha' which should be observed once in every 15 days. In this way a properly educated person who is observing vows, would go to heaven even from his position as a householder, getting free from the (existing) 'audārika' body.

'A monk who has observed vows properly, would either achieve total emancipation from all miseries and unhappiness or would become a very prosperous god' (Uttara. 5/23-25).

These stanzas very clearly state that both, a householder who is properly observing vows and a monk who has properly observed vows would achieve the best destination after the death. Till or before the vows reaches the climax, he would go to heaven after the death and when the vows reaches the climax, he would achieve 'moksa' that is total freedom from birth-death cycle.

Superiority of a monk is definitely not since the birth nor it is because of his dress. The only reason of his superiority is his discipline of *vratās* (vows). That is why it is said, 'A householder's life of discipline of vows may be better than a few monks; but the discipline of vows of monks is better than all the householders'. A tattered dress, leather, nudity, sporting long hair, only one cloth covering, and shaving of head do not protect a monk of evil conduct.

'If one, living life by 'bhikṣā' (disciplined begging for food as per certain rules for Jaina monks) is of evil conduct, then he can not escape from the hell.'

The meaning of the word 'bhiksu' is 'vratī' (one who observes vows). An incomplete 'vratī' or one, who could not reach fulfillment of his resolution of 'vrata' fully, can attain heaven only and not 'moksa'. Only the one who reaches the climax of fulfillment of his resolution of vows can achieve moksa. This can happen even if one is in householder's guise. A person outwardly may be in householder's guise, but inwardly if he reaches this position of climax then in reality he is a 'bhikṣu'. Therefore the two options 'total emancipation from all miseries and unhappiness or become a very prosperous god', are available to 'bhikṣu' only.

A householder is the one who can not fulfill great-vows or reach its climax. According to Śramaṇa-tradition it is not necessary to become a householder before becoming a 'Śramaṇa' (monk). A person can become a 'Śramaṇa' even in childhood or in youth or old age.

Birgu Purohit told his sons, 'Sons! First we all stay together and observe 'saṃyaktva' and vows (of householder only). Then, when your youth is over we will move about taking 'bhikṣā' from house to house'. Then the sons replied, 'Father! The one who has friendship with death or the one who can escape death or the one who knows that he will not die, can only think of tomorrow'.

In Buddhist confraternity there are two stages of monkshood, 'sramnera' and 'upasampanna'. In the

first one, only ten rules are to be observed. '*Upasampanna bhikṣu*' also has to observe 227 rules during '*pratimokṣa*'. Any one can become '*upasampanna*' after the age of 20 years.

The summary of the above discussion is:

In Śramana tradition, a life of a Śramana (monk) is considered better than that of a householder.

Three stages are considered proper for being/ becoming a Śramana.

Achieving moksa is possible only through Śramana life.

6. Sense of Equality and Nonviolence

Equality is the identity or the fundamental cause of *Śramaṇa* tradition. The word '*Śramaṇa*' has been very widely used. That is how this equality-based culture is called '*Śramaṇa* culture'. We have also used the word '*Śramaṇa*' in many places. But from reality viewpoint its name is '*samana* culture'. The word 'samana' has come from the word '*sama*' (equal). The one who considers all living beings as equal is '*samana*'. '*Samana*' viewpoint is, 'in the manner in which I do not like grief, in the same manner all the living beings do not like grief'. From this viewpoint he would not kill or get killed any living being. Because of this thinking of equality he is called '*samana*'.

It is said in Daśavaikālika Niryukti :

'As I do not like unhappiness, in the same way all living beings do not like unhappiness'. From this equality viewpoint, the one who does not kill or get any living being killed is called 'samana' because of his sense of equality'. (154)

'The one who has equality in mind, for whom no living being is loved one or hateful, he is called 'samana' because of his equal state of mind'. (155)

'The one who is, from various specialties view point is like a snake, a mountain, the fire, the sea, a tree, a wasp, a deer, the earth, a lotus, the sun or the wind is 'samana'. (156)

'The one who is equal among own people and outsiders and is equal to honour and insult is 'samana''. (157)

Based on this sense of equality it is said that just by shaving off the head one does not become a 'samana' (Uttar. 25/9-30).

The word 'samana also means 'tapasvī' (one who performs penance). In $S\bar{u}trakpt\bar{a}nga$ both these words are used in the same SANZA (1/2/16). If 'samana' only means 'tapasvi' - then it would not be necessary to use the words, 'samana' and 'tapasvī' at the same time.

In the same Sura (1/2/23-25, 28) equality of a 'samana' ('samabhāva' or 'samatā') is defined in different forms. One of the forms of inequality is arrogance. Therefore it is said that a monk should not be arrogant about his status or family and abhor others but should remain in equality.

One who hates others remains in the cycle of birth and death for a very long time, therefore a monk should not be arrogant but remain in equality.

Even an emperor after renouncing and becoming a monk should not hesitate to bow down before a monk, who has become a monk earlier than him but who was once a servant of his servant and thus observe the sense of equality.

A wise monk would win over anger and other passions and ascertain the sense of equality.

In this way in many places the relation between 'samana' and 'samatā' (equality) is found.

In Buddhist literature 'samatā' (equality) has been given a place of importance. But we can not find anywhere it is said that the word 'samana' is derived from it. Even then, the definition of the word 'Śramaṇa' indicates the sense of equality in him.

Lord Buddha replying to a question of Sabhīya Parivrājaka said:—'One who has become calm by getting away from 'puṇya' and 'pāpa', who has become without dirt (clean) by knowing about this world and the world after death, who has gone beyond birth and death who has become steady is called Śramaṇa' (suttanipata, 32/11).

'Samana' also has a relation with the word 'sama' ('upasama' meaning suppressed or under control). In *Dhammapada* it is said, 'The one who is completely controlling the sins big or small is called 'Sramana' because of suppression of sins' (*Dhammatthayagga* 19).

Only on the basis of equality persons from all community were being initiated in 'Ehikṣu-saṅgha'. Explaining the origin of 'Śramaṇa', Lord Buddha had said in Dirghanikaya, 'Vaśiṣṭha! There was a time when even a 'kṣatriya', aspiring to become a 'Śramaṇa', saying, 'I will become a Śramaṇa' and denouncing his religion, and becoming homeless would get initiated; also a brahmana, also a vaiśya, also a Kṣudra. Vaśiṣṭa! Thus the institution of 'Śramaṇa' is originated from these four institutes. It is made up of the same living beings not others. It is made up of 'dharma' (religion) and not 'adharma' (non-religion). The religion is supreme for the people, in this birth and in the next birth also.'

Among the chief personalities described in *Uttarādhyayana*, there were monks initiated from all the four communities. Nami Rājarṣi, Sanjaya, Mṛgāputra, etc were 'rṣatriya'. Kapila, Jaighoṣ, Bhṛgu, etc were 'Brāhmaṇa'. Anāthī, Samudrapāl etc were 'vaiśya'. Harikeśabala, Citrasambhūta etc were cāndāls (śudra).

This equality of 'Sramana' was based upon nonviolence. Thus these two elements equality and nonviolence are two main seeds of 'samana' (or 'Śramana') culture.

1. Opposition of yajña (sacrifice), Invalidity of Veda, and fallaciousness of casteism (system)

It is a natural conclusion of our cultural study that, 'yajña' is the center of Vaidika culture and monkhood is the center of Śramaṇa culture. According to Vaidika theory the root of 'yajña' is the support of universe. Destruction of sins, annihilation of enemies, killing demons, remedy for maladies, all these can be achieved only by 'yajña'. 'Yajña' is believed to be the means to long life, prosperity, and even immortality. In fact the complete philosophy of life for Vaidika people is comprised of 'yajña' only. This element of 'yajña' is manifested in Rigveda in the following form. 'Yajĥa is the center of this universe. It is the cause of production of everything in this world. Yajĥa was born because of gods and 'ṛṣies' (sage). The world of animals in forests and in towns was created only because of 'yajĥa'. Horses, cows, goats, sheep, Veda, etc are produced only because of 'yajĥa'. This was the first religion of gods'.

The first religion of the tribes, (who were followers of Śramaṇa tradition) were prevalent before Ārya, was nonviolence. That is why, they were never impressed by the institute of 'yajṇa'. The disrespect towards 'yajṇa' found in the Jaina and Buddhist literature is the result of their long time anti-yajṇa thinking. Indra in disguise of a Brāhmaṇa told Nami Rājarṣi, 'Rājarṣi! First you perform a huge 'yajṇa', then become a Śramaṇa.' To this Rājarṣi replied, 'saṃyama, that is monkshood is better even for a person who is giving a million cows in charity every month; even he may not give anything in charity then after.'

There has been opposition to the institution of 'yajña' right from the beginning- A reference to 'agni-heen' (fireless) persons is found in Rgveda. They have been also called 'deva-virodhi' (opposing gods) and 'yajña-virodhi' (opposing sacrifice). Yati community was 'yajña-virodhi. And there were several such

communities. They had influenced the *Vaidika* tradition. According to Laxmana Shastri, 'these non-*Vaidika* and not believing in *yajĥa* activities influenced *Vaidika* philosophy also. A concept giving more importance to rites in the form of mental worshiping in place of external rites and rituals appeared in *Yajurveda*. There it is mentioned as follows. 'Like it is possible to be free from the sin of killing a *Brāhmaṇa* and other sins, on the strength of *Aśvamegha yajĥa*; in the same way it is possible to become free of these sins on the strength of pure mental exercise of *Aśvamegha* worshipping. (*Taittirīya Samhitā* - 5/3/12). Several such *Vaidika* references making statements about mental worshipping are available.

Not only 'Śramaṇas', but influenced by them, āraṇyaka and aupaniṣadika sages also were protesting against the institution of 'yajṇa'. Some signs of protest were seen even in Brāhmaṇa period. Author of Shatapatha Brāhmaṇa has said, 'it is possible with the help of learning only to reach the destination where desires are fulfilled. There neither charity can reach nor an illiterate ascetic can reach'.

R si Kavašeya has said, 'why should we learn *Vedās* and why should we perform *yaifia*? Because, when the (activity of) speech begins, the activity of soul disappears and when the (activity of) soul is suppressed, the activity of speech begins. When the soul is acti*Vāt*ed, the activity of speech disappears.'

In Mundakopanisada it is said, 'the 18 instruments (16 sacrificial priests, the host, and his wife) of yajña a who are taking the shelter of ignorant 'karma' (activity) are destructive and unsteady. The fools who believe 'this is beneficial' are subject to repeated old age and death'. In spire of this line of thinking the institution of yajña did not become strengthless. It was continuing even up to the Lord Mahāvīra time. There are discussions about it in four chapters (9,12,14,15) of Uttarādhyayana. Whatever the sons of Bhrugu said was almost the same as what Rṣi Kavaśeya said. Bhṛgu said, 'Sons! First learn the Vedās, then become hermit'. They replied, 'Father! Even after learning Vedās, they can not protect'. The idea behind this reply has relation with desire and yajña. Vedās can not protect because they are propounder of fulfillment of desires and yajña. A clear description of this inability to protect is found in the dialogue between Prajāpati Manu and Bṛhaspati. Manu said, 'Most of the exercises of rites and rituals prescribed in Veda are for rewards and fulfillment of desires. The one who gets free from these desires can only acquire the supreme God'.

It is also understood from *Uttarādhyayana* that at that time 'Śramaṇa' of 'Nirgrantha' tradition were visiting the yajña-yards for 'bhikṣā' (begging for food) and were propounding the futility of yajña and success of spiritual-yajña.

Lord Buddha also had propounded the great 'yajña' of few requirements. He had visited the place of yajña for the food required for 'bhikṣu-saṅgha' (confraternity). Replying to a question raised by Kūṭadanta Brāhmaṇa, he had menti ned about five very fruitful 'yajña'. Viz. 1. dānayajña, 2. triśaraṇayajña, 3. śikṣāpadayajña, 4. śīlayajña, and 5. samādhiyajña.

Sārikhya philosophy was opponent of yajña. This was a very reason to consider Sārikhya as an 'avaidika' (non-Vaidika) philosophy or belonging to Śramaṇa tradition. An opponent of 'yajña' can not be a Vaidika tradition. Therefore it is more appropriated to call the protest against 'yajña' in the Upaniṣada writings as the development of thoughts of 'avaidika' tradition.

The Vaidika people considered community ('jāti') as real or authentic. According to Rigveda, Brāhmaṇ was born through the mouth of Prajāpati (God), Kṣatriya through his arms, Vaiśya through his stomach and Kṣudra through his feet. Brāhmaṇs were supporters of 'jāti' by birth. While at that time Śramaṇa were propounding the theory of 'jāti' by deed. Lord Buddha was establishing the unity of mankind in a very brilliant way.

'No one is Brāhman by birth or non-brāhman by birth. Brāhman is by deed, and non-brahman is by

deed. A farmer is (a farmer) by deed. An artist is by deed. A businessman is by deed, and a servant is also by deed. A thief, a warrior, a beggar, or a king is by deed.

Two occasions described in *Uttarādhyayana*, one of Harikeśabāla and another of Jayaghośa throw light on Lord Mahāvīra's viewpoint related to casetism. Harikeśabāla was a 'cāndala' ('śudra') by birth. And Jāyaghoṣa was a *Brāhmaṇa* by birth. Both had gone to the place of yajña. Both had criticized the casteism in very clear terms.

A dispute was going on two thousand years ago. There was a dual going on in the society. On one side there were supporters of casteism and on the other side there were those who were refuting the casteism. One scholar of *Śramaṇa* tradition says that the following five characteristics are indicators of stupidity of those who have lost their wisdom. 'To accept the validity of Veda, to accept authority of someone (God etc.), to believe that to take a bath is a religious rite, arrogance of casteism and to believe that sins could be destroyed by harming animals or by violence'.

One of the reasons for the origin of casteism is arrogance. An arrogant person wants to show off his arrogance. One of the ways to manifest arrogance is casteism.

Today the issue of human rights has become very powerful. Freedom, education and employment are considered basic human rights. Many human problems are solved on the basis of today's definition of human rights. Today even the most powerful state or country can not violate the human rights.

Today it is very clear that to abhor a person or to take away a person's social rights on the basis of casteism or apartheid is violation of human rights. Such violations were prevalent earlier and exist today also. The question is why? The inspiration or the force behind it is not of intelligence but of arrogance. Only the arrogance is in the background of these violations. A live illustration of this is the story of Harikeśa Muni.

2. Victory of renunciation and defeat of arrogance

Harikeśa Muni was a 'Cānḍāl' (untouchable) by caste, a 'śudra'. He was performing great penance. Once he was observing monthly fasts (fasting for 30 days continuously). On the day of ending his fast he arrived at a place where ceremony of yajña was in process. Many great pandits, purchits, teachers and students were engaged in the yajña. Muni stood before the place of yajña. Some sons of Brāhmans saw him. Looking at his strange dress they started ridiculing him. Muni was not properly dressed. They asked, 'who are you?'

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'I am a bhikṣu'
'Why have you come here?'
' For 'bhikṣā' (to get food).'
' Would you take 'bhikṣā'?'
'Yes'.
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The devil of casteism got provoked. The *Brāhmaṇas* got very excited. They said, 'go away from here. You have come here for 'bhikṣā', do not you know that *Brāhmaṇas* are performing yajṇa here? This food is only for the higher caste *Brāhmaṇas*. You shall not get food.'

Muni said, 'I have seen, a lot of food is being naturally cooked here. A little out of that I may get. That is all, nothing else'.

Brāhmaṇa said, 'No! You can not get. This food is given to those who belong to higher caste only. This food is only for those who are very learned'.

Muni said, 'you are ignorant. In fact you are not great. You are excited and arrogant. Also you are committing low sin of violence. You can not be great even in learning. You are simply bearing the burden of speech. The religious books have become burden for you. You are not able to understand their significance'.

There was a long dialogue between the monk and *Brāhmaṇa*s. On one side there was the strength of renunciation and penance. On the other side there was arrogance of caste. At the end the arrogance was defeated, and the strength of renunciation and penance won. *Brāhmaṇa*s bow down at the feet of the monk.

Lord Mahāvīra has put up the principle of self-equality. He said, 'consider all living beings equal to yourself'. Fallaciousness of casteism is development of this principle. This issue became more prominent because of social circumstances of that time. If we analyze the circumstances of the society and the social customs of that time then we can understand the support and the opposition of casteism in that background.

Vaidika scholars divided the society into four divisions on the basis of 'karma' (deeds, 'ype of work being done by an individual). Resabha had divided society in three divisions. The three divisions that Plato had thought of are very similar to those imagined by Jaina acāryas. The concept of 'asi-masi-kriṣi' meaning sword, ink and farming could be compared with adventure, intelligence, and need. This was a flexible concept. Its aim was to fulfill the requirements of the society without changing the structure of society. When there was a wide spread influence of Jaina and Buddhist philosophies on the society, then the talk of caste by birth became subdued and the issue of caste by deed became very popular. Even in Gita it is said, 'my world is divided four-fold based upon 'gunakarma''.

A person becomes a *Brāhmaṇa* by his quality or by his deeds. A *Brāhmaṇa* is not by birth but is by deeds. No one becomes a *Brāhmaṇ* just by chanting 'aum'. *Brāhmaṇa* is the one who knows the skills of a *Brāhmaṇ*. Jaina and Buddhist religion brought a sharp revolution of caste by deed. This had wide spread influence on the society. Even in Bhaga Vāta-Purana and Mahābhārata it is said that the same person can be a *Brāhmaṇa*, a Vaiśya, a Kṣatriya and a Kṣudra in the same birth.

Revolutionary thinking of Mahāvīra

The work Mahāvīra did to break this insistence was a big revolution. Instead of depending upon the validity of books, he showed the validity of a person. If there was any validity in the books, then there would not had been any harm to the casteism. If we follow the definition given in the books, then casteism can never be demolished. Experience of a person is valid. His instincts are valid. His character and extra sensory perceptions are valid. This revolutionary thinking established a new philosophy. A person is Brāhmaṇa, Kṣatriya, Vaiśya, and Kṣudra by deed.

Mahāvīra gave a new dimension to the prevalent belief of casteism. An intellectual revolution occurred. If this intellectual revolution were transferred from one place to other in the human life then the problem of casteism and apartheid would not have originated at all. This vision of Mahāvīra can become a slogan for the solution of the problem of casteism.

3. Two branches of Religion

There have been two branches of religion - religion of activism and religion of withdrawal. The goal of activist religion was attainment of heaven. *Mimārisaka* philosophy is the leading philosophy of activist religion. The main goal of *Mimārisaka* religion has been attaining heaven. The concept of soul or 'mokṣa' (emancipation) came later. *Mimārisaka* philosophy accepted 'mokṣa' and also believed it to be the ultimate goal. But its main object remained attaining heaven. The question was how could the heaven be achieved? How can the hell be avoided? The reply was, 'yajña' should be performed for achievement of the heaven.'

In activist religion 'karma' (rites and rituals) is prime. In withdrawal religion knowledge is prime. The

chief of Mimānsaka philosophy Ācārya Prabhākara is 'karmavādī' (exponent of 'karma'). For him 'karma' is prime and the knowledge is secondary. He does not consider knowledge is independent. Ācārya Śankaris 'jñānavādi' (exponent of knowledge). In his viewpoint the value of knowledge is much more and that of 'karma' is negligible. For him 'karma' is only a part of knowledge. Kumārila Bhaṭṭa accepts both knowledge and 'karma' equally. These three Ācāryās of Mimānsaka had these types of schools of thought. Ācārya Prabhākara gave maximum support to 'yajña' etc. Provision, method, and support to 'yajña' is given in the first part of Mimānsā. Therefore the first of Mimānsā is called 'karmakānda'. In the later part there is no supporting to yajña etc therefore it is called 'jñānakānd'.

4. Why 'Yajña?

One belief was that a person would go to heaven by performing yajña. Yajña became the supreme religion of the followers of this belief. Big ceremonies were taking place at various places. Thousands of people would participate in such performances. The tradition of yajña developed and spread wide and far. When Lord Mahāvīra became omniscient, Indrabhūti Guatama etc eleven great scholars were arriving to participate in a yajña function. Eleven great scholars came for the same one function. 500 disciples accompanied each one of them. At that time thousands of people were present at that yajña. The eleven scholars incidentally met Lord Mahāvīra; and their direction changed. They withdrew from 'yajña-karma' and became disciple of Lord Mahāvīra.

Muni Harikeśabala told the *Brāhmaṇa*s who were performing *yajṇa*, 'how could you ask for purity by water when you are utilizing fire? Wise people do not call that as right faith'.

Muni further said, 'you are repeatedly committing sin by killing animals and other living beings by utilizing fire. There is violence whenever the fire is utilized. And commitment of 'pāpa-karma' is connected with violence'.

The *Brāhmaṇas* asked, 'Oh *bhikṣo*! Tell us how should we perform *yajña*? So that we can destroy sins? Please tell us what is the procedure prescribed by wise people to perform the best *yajña*?'

Muni Harikeśabala said, giving a very meaningful reply to the question, 'one who is observing five great vows, one who does not desire non-restrain hie, one who considers himself as separate from the body, one who is pure, and one who abandons the body, that great victorious performs the best yajña'.

5. Yajña and place of Pilgrimage: A spiritual viewpoint

Brāhmaņa Somadeo asked with much curiosity, 'Bhikso! What is your fire?'

The monk replied, 'Penance is the fire'.

'What is your fire-place?'

'Jīva is the fire-place'.

'What is your spoon to add ghee?' (Cooked butter)

'Yoga, the auspicious activities of mind, speech and body are the spoons for adding ghee'.

5. Viewpoint of Lord Mahāvīra

The viewpoint Lord Mahāvīra had expressed in context to yajña and place of pilgrimage is indicative of non-absolutism. Lord Mahāvīra propounded the principle of non-absolutism. Equanimity, non-absolutism, and total detachment from all emotions, these three converge at a point. There were three kinds of problems during Mahāvīra's time, viz. relating to gods, ('ādhidaivika') relating to material world ('ādhibhoutika'), and relating to soul that is spiritual (ādhyātmika). Many philosophies had put forward their contemplation. It was possible only for a competent person like Mahāvīra to rise above the situations of 'ādhidaivika' and 'ādhibhautika' and give solutions for all problems by converting them into spiritual situations. This was possible because Mahāvīra was promoter of abstinence from all sinful activities, and propounder of equanimity.

Casteism, 'yajĥaism', and place of pilgrimage, were the three intricate questions of that time. Thousands of people were following these popular beliefs. In such situation to offer a new thinking and a new philosophy was a deed of great bravery. He established a theory opposing the prevalent tradition. He had the viewpoint of total detachment from all emotions, and the philosophy of non-absolutism. Therefore converting the problems of 'ādhidaivika' and 'ādhibhautika' into spiritual situations was easily possible for him. Conversion of problems of yajĥa and place of pilgrimage into spiritual situation was his guidance and direction.

Nirgrantha (Jaina monk) Jayaghoşa went to the place of yajña of his brother Vijayaghoşa. There the author of yajña told the monk in a negative tone, 'Bhikṣo! I will not give you 'bhikṣā'. Beg somewhere else. Oh Bhikṣo! This food is not available to all. This is to be given to only those Brāhman, who have learnt 'jyotiṣa' (astrology) etc, all the six parts of vedas, who are expert in religious works, and who are capable of liberating themselves and others.'

The great monk who was searching for the best meaning was neither aggrieved nor pleased by the prevention of the author of the 'yajña'. Not for food, or water, nor for anything to support life, but for his salvation the monk said, 'you do not know the basis of Veda. You do not know the basis of 'Yajña'. You do not know the basis of astrology. And you do not even know the happiness of religion. You do not know him, who is capable of salvation of self and others. If you know then tell me'.

Finding himself incompetent to reply to monk's question, the *Brāhmana* together with the assembly bowed down and asked the great monk, 'You tell us what is the basis of Veda? What is the basis of 'yajña'? What is the basis of astrology? You tell us what is the basis of religion? You tell us about him who is capable of salvation of self and others. These are all my queries. You may please resolve them'.

'The basis of Veda is oblation. The basis of *yajña* is the performer of the *yajña*. The basis of astrology is the moon. And the basis of religion is Kaśyap Rṣhabdeo'.

'Like, all the planets bow down before the moon with folded hands and politeness, similarly all the people presented them before Lord Rṣabha'.

The performer of yajña is ignorant of the wealth of a Brāhmaṇa. He is covered under superficial study and penance, like fire is covered under ashes. We call that one, who is always worshipped like the fire, by people, a Brāhmaṇa as identified by the wise men. We call him a Brāhmaṇa, who is not fascinated by gains and is not grieved by losses, and who follows the teachings of Ārya. We call him a Brāhmaṇa who is like polished gold, which is made pure by heating in the fire. And who is beyond attachment-aversion and fear. We call him a Brāhmaṇa who knowing very well the mobile and immobile living beings, do not kill them. We call him a Brāhmaṇa who would not tell lie because of anger, greed, fear, or humor. We call him a Brāhmaṇa who would not take anything, living or non-living in whatever quantity large or small, when not given by its owner. We call him a Brāhmaṇa who would not indulge in sexual activities with gods, humans, and animals, mentally, physically, and verbally. We call him a Brāhmaṇa who would not get smeared with sensuality even though he being a product of sensualism, like a lotus that does not get smeared with the water in which it is produced. We call him a Brāhmaṇa who is not greedy but sustains the life with harmless 'bhikṣā' (begging for feod); who has renounced his home; who is penniless; and who is detached among the householders.

All those *Vedās* whose lessons are cause of tying up of the oblation animals with the pillars of sacrifice and the *yajña* performed with sins of animal-oblation etc can not protect the immoral '*yajĥakartā*' (author or performer of *yajĥa*); because '*karma*' are very strong'.

No one becomes a Śramaṇa just by shaving off his head. No one becomes a Brāhmaṇa just by chanting 'aum'. No one becomes a monk just by staying in the forest. And no one becomes a 'tāpasa' just by putting on tattered clothes. The one who practices equanimity becomes a Śramaṇa. The one who practices celibacy becomes a Brāhmaṇa. The one who endeavors for knowledge becomes a monk. The one who performs

penance becomes a 'tāpasa'. A person becomes a Brāhmaṇa, a Kṣatriya, a Vaiśya, and a Kṣudra by his deeds.

'Arahat' (Omniscient) expounds these truths. We call him a *Brāhmaṇ*, who graduates in these truths, and is free from all '*karma*'. Those who are virtuous as said above, and the best among the *Brāhmaṇa*s are competent for their own salvation and salvation of others'.

Thus, as all the doubts being removed, Vijayaghosa understood the speech of Jayaghosa and was satisfied.

Then with folded hands he told the great monk Jayaghoşa, 'you have explained to me very well the meaning of being a true *Brāhmana*.'

'You are the real performer of *yajña*. Therefore oh great Bhikshu! You oblige us by accepting 'bhikṣā' (food).'

The monk said, 'I have no use of 'bhikṣā'. Now very soon you renounce (this worldly life of yours) and get initiated into a monk-life. So that you do not have to go round and round in the deep sea of worldly life full of whirlpools of danger.' (*Uttarādhyayana*, 12/5-37)

The theory of caste by deed of Śramaṇa culture influenced the Vaidika ṛṣis also. And the theory of caste by deed was being established during time of Mahābhārata and Purāṇas.In Mahābhārata (Shantiparva, 245/11-14, 22-24) characteristics of a Brāhmaṇa are explained as follows:

'Gods believe him to be a *Brāhmaṇa* (*Brāhmajñān*i) who being steady in his universal posture, all alone fills up the whole space, and who being totally detached, experiences loneliness in the place full of people.

'Gods believe him to be a 'brahmavettā' (Brāhmaṇa) who is trying like a monk free from all attachments, and who is steady and pure like the sky, and does not contend anything to be his, and travels alone, and maintains equanimity.'

'Gods believe him to be a 'brahmavettā' (Brāhmaṇā) whose life is for Lord Shrihari, and who spends his day and night in religious performance.'

'Gods believe him to be a 'brahmavettā' (Brāhmaṇa) who is beyond all types of lusts and rituals, and who stays away from praise and prayer, and who is free from all sorts of bondage.'

'According to *Brahmapurāṇa* (223/52) a '*Kṣudra*' can become a *Brāhmaṇa*, and a '*Vaiśya*' can become a '*Kṣatriya*'. Criticism on casteism is also found in *Vajrasuchikopaniṣad* and *Bhaviṣyapurāṇa*. But this viewpoint was not fully spread in the heart of *Vaidika* culture.'

14 Virtue Worshiping

A personis fit for wors mping only because of his virtues and not because of his age or external appearance. Jaina culture has full faith in every word of this saying. In *Vaidika* culture mainly the faith is only in 'person-worshiping'. In 'person-worshiping' the person who is worshiped is accepted as a fully virtuous person. While worshiping him, his personality is given all importance and not his virtues. A person is worth worshiping as an individual and not because of his virtues. In *Vaidika* culture a *Brāhmaṇa* is considered fit for worshiping because he is born in a *Brāhmaṇa* family; even if he is a person without any virtues. On the contrary Jaina culture has been always in favor of virtue worshiping. No importance is given to a person because of his caste, family, color, or external dress. Jaina culture can not accept that a vicious, atrocious, or immoral is considered fit for worshiping because he is born in a higher caste or family; and a virtuous, beneficent, and a compassionate person is considered fit for hatred because he is born in a lower caste or family. In addition, by encouraging 'person-worshiping', vice instead of virtue, ignorance instead of knowledge and wickedness instead of righteousness will become more powerful. In *Daśavaikalika Sūtra*, (9/3/11) defining 'who should be considered fit for worshiping', it is said as follows:

'A person is considered a 'sādhu' (good man or monk) because of his virtues; and is considered an 'asādhu' (bad man) or wicked because of his vices. One who can recognize the virtues of soul by soul, and is equal and balanced in attachment and aversion, is the person fit for worshiping.

In the Jaina religion there is no name of, and importance to any particular person in the prayer of 'five supreme gods' ('pañcaparamesthi') because of the faith in virtue-worshiping. Instead the prayer is addressed to those great people who have spent, and who are spending their lifetime for own salvation and for the good of every living being.

In Jaina culture the word 'deva' is used to signify two types of persons, an owner of physical wealth, and an owner of spiritual wealth.

In Jaina culture the 'deva' with spiritual wealth is the one fit for worshiping. This spiritual 'deVātva' (godhood) is not obtained by birth. The soul, which by observing the five great vows of nonviolence, truth, non-stealing, celibacy, and non-possession, and by renouncing attachment etc, attains the stage of complete self-development by penance, is considered fit for worshiping. The purpose of worshiping the venerable in Jaina religion is different than that in the Vaidika religion. In Vaidika culture the non-virtuous devotee worships his revered one so that the revered one being pleased, should bestow upon him the materialistic physical eemed Univer wealth. Contrary to that, the follower of Jaina culture worships his revered one so that he could adopt the wealth of virtues of his revered one.

OUESTIONNAIRE

Essay

Clarify the specialties of Jaina culture 1.

Discuss the fundamentals of Jaina culture.

2. Answer in brief

- What is the main difference between the Sramana culture and Vaidika culture? 1.
- What type of atmosphere is congenial for the development of sense of equality? 2.

Fill in the blanks 3.

1.	is the philosophy of life of Jaina culture.	
2.	Lord Mahāvīra made use of the <i>Prākṛi</i> t language with a desire to	
3.	The word 'Nirgraritha' is symbol of, and the word 'Jaina' is symbol of	
4.	'in Indian life is a special gift from Jainas and Buddhists'	
5.	are two sides of culture.	
5.	A list ofarts is found in Jaina literature. (72/64/55)	
7.	'om nama siddham' is a deviation of mantra.	
7.	Sanyāsa of Jaina philosophy is based on	
8.	The only one cause of the greatness of a 'bhikṣu' is	
9.	The center of <i>Vaidika</i> culture is and the center of <i>Śramana</i> culture is	

Jaina Daršan, Manan, aur Mīmāmsā — Yuvacharya Mahaprajña. Bhartīya SansKriti me Jainadharma kā Yogadān —Dr. Hiralal Jain. SansKriti ke do Pravāha — Yuvacharya Mahaprajña Mahāvīra kā Punarjanma — Yuvacharya Mahaprajña

LESSON-7

THE LIFE-STYLE OF NON-VIOLENCE (IN CONTEXT OF FOOD)

When we discuss about conduct according to the Jaina Philosophy, it is but natural that we should know the Jaina point of view regarding food. Food and conduct are deeply co-related with each other. Non-violence, health, emotions, attitudes, behaviour and conduct etc. are the points that are directly related with food. So, in this lesson we shall discuss what eating habits and style a sensible and prudent man should adopt according to the Jaina ideology and on what basis we should decide as to what things are eatable and what are non eatable.

In the present age non-vegetarianism is being strongly opposed not only from the religious and cultural point of view but also from the scientific point of view. It has been scientifically proved that numan beings are not meant for eating the meat of the animals and that doing so is not good for them. Let us ponder over this serious and very important matter wholly and in detail.

Bread (food) is the first and foremost necessity of man and therefore it is the most important. Nobody can live without eating and when there is no life, no question arises of doing anything. Survival is the primary requirement. We can do something worthwhile only when there is no problem of food. The first duty of the government all over the world is to provide food to the masses. Shelter and clothing come next. They and the other things like education and medical facilities are required only when there is life. And to sustain life, food is the primary requisite. Even in religion food has been given the top priority. Just as cloth owes its existence to thread, in the same way salvation can be attained by a person who pursues in his life knowledge, philosophical ideas and good conduct and such a life owes its existence to food. There can be no life without food and without life there can be no knowledge and no philosophy of any kind and without knowledge and noble conduct salvation cannot be attained. All this analysis shows that food is the first and the topmost need and necessity of man. So the importance of food can never be forgotten and the questions and problems relating to food cannot be neglected.

The meaning of the word 'food'

The word 'food' means 'to take something from outside'. It has been so arranged by Nature that each and everybody has to take, to receive something from outside. Not only the living beings but the non-living beings also take something or the other from outside.

It is a rule with every object- whether it is living or non-living and whether it is conscious or unconsciousto get, to receive something new and to leave out and give up the old. This process of taking in and taking out goes on constantly. Every creature takes food in and will continue to do so. There is not a single moment when a creature may go without food.

A person has been taking food ever since he/she has been conceived. A person dies and takes another birth. The condition in-between is known as the period of interval. Even during that period a person does not go completely without food. Sometimes when the period is long, he takes food in-between. To be without food is not possible for a body. We intake food from every particle of the body. We see with our eyes. This is the food taken by the ears. Every sense-organ has got its own food. We make options with our mind. This is the food taken by our mind. We receive language as food and then we speak out. Not a single speech of ours can do without having food. Every word is first listened to, then it is thought over, then it is spoken out. This cycle goes on and on. Our speech requires food, our thinking and contemplation require food.

The purpose of Taking Food

Food is an absolute necessity of life. The soul never needs food. Food is needed only by the body, by the Jīvā. A living being has a body, so there is hunger and as there is hunger, there is food. Food is the disease of our daily life. We know how to cure this disease. We take food and the disease is cured. As the cure of this disease is in our reach, we do not consider it as a disease. An Ācārya has written, 'There is no pain that can be compared to that of hunger.' The question arises, 'Why should we take food?' The answer is, 'To subside the pain of hunger.' This is the simple and the natural purpose of taking food. All the other purposes that have been told and are told regarding taking food, besides this one, are only theoretical and not practical. The life of a man is bound by food. Hospitality too is observed by asking the guest to have food. Whenever two men or women meet, they invariably talk about food. No other talk is as wide as that of food.

In the Jaina literature four types of tales are told-The tales of the women, the tales of the devotees, the tales of food. Such a tale never goes without a purpose. A man is not so much bound by anything else as he is bound by food. The body, blood, flesh and all the constituent elements of the body are formed by food. The prowess or the vigour that is beyond the seven constituent elements is also formed by food. The prowess, in the present language, is called electricity. All the chemicals are derived from food. The whole cycle of life is conducted by food. All our attitudes are guided by food. The personality of a person may be evaluated on the basis of the food taken by him. How can a person who has not made a real evaluation of food, understand his personality? Such a man cannot analyze or transform his habits.

Types of Food

There are three types of food- The food that provides vigour ('Ojas food'), the food that we take with the pores of our skin and the 'Prakṣepa' food i.e. the food that we take with our mouth. The food that we take first of all when we are born is known as the 'Oj food' (the food that provides vigour). Vigour is the basic and fundamental strength of our body. A man lives so long as there is vigour in him. So many times we hear about some surprising incidents-a man beings buried in a deep ditch or under debris and yet, not dying, remaining alive for ten or say, twenty days. There is a simple answer to it-so long as there is this 'Ojas' food in him, he does not die. He survives even after a major accident. When this 'Ojas' food is finished, a man dies even at a light stroke of foot.

The second type of food is the food that we take with the pores of our skin. Every pore of the skin of our body takes food. We take food with our mouth from time to time, occasionally, but we take food with the pores constantly, our life depends very much on the pores. A man cannot live if the pores are blocked even for three hours. The people performing plays, apply make-up and colour to their faces and the other parts of the body. The colour blocks the pores. Sometimes when such people go to sleep without removing the make-up, major accidents are caused and they die. Blockage of the pores is an invitation to death.

The third type of food is the 'Prakṣepa' food i.e. the food taken in morsels with mouth or supplied to the body by any other means. We are all familiar with this type of food. We mainly consider this type of food as food. Very few people are aware of the fact that oxygen as well as the heat of the sun is our food. Most of the people consider only grains etc. as food.

There is a fourth type of food as well-the food that we take just with our thinking. We just think that we have to take food and we feel asif it has been taken. All the elements of food are present there in the atmosphere. Everything that is available there in the material world is also there in the subtler world. That, which is subtle, gets massive. The thing, the source of which is not there in the subtler world, cannot be there in the material world also. Everything that is required for the safety of our body, is present there, near about us. Only that our faculties are not so developed as to take this type of food.

The 'Ojas' food is the natural food. We have got no control over it. The capacity of the food that is taken with just our thinking can be developed by practicing some specific mental training. For the food taken with the pores of the skin, it is necessary that we live in a pure and holy atmosphere. A detailed description about the 'Praksepa' food, i.e., the food taken with mouth, will be useful to us.

Of what type the food should be?

When food is absolutely necessary for us, the question arises-What type of food should we take? There are some foods that defile our thinking, our language and our soul. There are some other foods that make all of them healthy and pure. Then what type of food should we take? The question has been discussed from many points of view allover the world. The discussion has been made taking into consideration many factors viz.-1. The physical health, 2. The mental health, 3. Non-violence, 4. Celibacy, 5. The purging of attitudes.

The first point to be considered regarding food is the physical health. It is food that we take that makes us healthy as well as unhealthy. Food causes diseases and also makes us free from them. In A yurveda, there are three important formulas regarding food. The food that is beneficial to us, the food that is taken in limited quantity and the food that is related to purity and feelings. All three of them have their own importance. 'Hitbhoji' is the person who takes food that is conductive to his health. 'Mitbhoji' is the person who takes food moderately and does not eat excessively and therefore, has not to pay the doctors. It will be interesting to know here what a doctor said, classifying food in four parts. He said, 'People eat one part of food for himself, to sustain his body, and the rest of the three parts for we people, the doctors. If they do not do so, the very existence of the doctors will come to an end.' If all the people become 'Mitbhoji' i.e. start eating moderately, the doctors will have to go away, the source of their income and hing will be finished. 'Ritabhoji' is the person who does not exploit others and who eats the food earned by the sweat of his brow.

'Rit' food is connected with our subtle emotions, with our mental ideas. The feelings that are there in the mind of the person at the time of growing it or cooking it, affect the food. Suppose one person grew the com and another person cooked the food with the feeling of cruelty in his mind, the person, eating that food, would certainly be affected. He might be eating that food with good feelings in his mind, but such type of food will covert even a kind man into a cruel person. We all know what a have food may cause.

Once there was a Sanyasin. The sanyasins are normally kind-hearted persons. But is so happened that the feelings of committing crime grew in the neart of this sanyāsin. Why did it so happen? The reason discovered was that it was due to the food that he got. Such feelings remained in him so long as that food remained in his body. When the food came out, those reelings also disappeared. In this context we wonder what the importance of 'Ritubhuk' (the food earned by labour) is. It is the food with which truthfulness is connected, the purity of consciousness is connected. That is the reason we should not have each and everybody to grow and to cook food. The persons who perform these tasks should be pure-hearted, having good feelings. The principle of 'Ritubhuk' that we should feel happy while having food is very important.

Balanced food

Nutritionsists and doctors say that Balanced food is the basis of physical health. Balanced food means the food having all the ingredients that are necessary for the proper functioning of the body. The food containing proteins carbo-hydrates, fats, mineral salts, iron and vitamins in proper quantities is considered to be balance food. By eating such food we feel healthy and our body can function properly. The opinion of the Yogis regarding balanced food is different. According to them Balanced food is the food that contains eatables, oil, air and light. In the periphery of Balanced food presented by physiologists come only the eatables and oils. The last two are excluded. In fact the food in which air and light (the sun) are not included, cannot be said to be Balanced.

One may say that the eatables and oils satisfy hunger, what air and light have to do with food? Will they satisfy hunger? If so, a great problem of the world may be solved. All the wants may be satisfied.

The sun or light is derived from the sun. Our body has a great requirement for Vitamin-D. The sun-rays are the best source of Vitamin-D. We cannot get such a good Vitamin from any other source. Our skin has got such a substance upon which when the sun-rays fall, Vitamin-D is automatically produced. The sun rays supply Vitamin-D. They supply calcium and phosphorus too. According to Naturopathy, a man should spend some days living in a forest. There he should remain nude for sometime in the day and let the sun-rays fall on his naked body. This will make up many deficiencies in our body. The provision of discarding clothes and remaining nude in the process of penance was not without some reason. It was very important and necessary and it was laid down after a careful thinking. From the point of view of physical and mental training, wearing clothes is not as beneficial as remaining without them (nude).

Let us now think from physical and scientific point of view. In the condition of remaining nude, the sunrays fall on the whole of our body. That sun supplies food to us. This is so, from the scientific point of view too. The sun is a supplementary element of food. The quantity of the food taken by the man who makes a regular use of the sun-rays, gets lessened. We don't get as many facts about the use of the sun-rays anywhere else as in the Jaina literature. There, this topic has been dealt in great detail. We find the description there of this sort. The quantity of food taken by the man who uses sun-rays regularly, gets lessened. His need for food also gets lessened. He cannot take too much food because most of his want of food is satisfied by sun-rays. But we have now forgotten and neglected the value and benefit of the use of sun-rays. Even the dieticians too are of the opinion that the person who is deprived of the sun and the air, creates problems for himself. They say, 'Go into the jungle. Take all of your clothes off. Not even a loin cloth should be there on the body. Now, lie down on the ground. Let your body burnifit is burnt by the sen-rays. There will be no harm. If you want to avoid the burning sensation, cover your body with a think cloth or with the earth. There should be a direct connection with the sun and with the earth. 'This is the procedure of the use of the sun. It is foolish to think of it as an activity of the *Hathyoga*. Making use of the sun-rays is a very important activity for the sustenance of our life.

Let us now think about air. The utility of what we eat gets lessened if we don't get oxygen. The person who does not take sufficient oxygen, has to take food in a greater quantity. The quantity of the food of the person who gets oxygen in a sufficient quantity, gets lessened.

If we pender over this matter seriously, we find that our body is composed mainly of four elements earth, water, fire and air. Our body needs all the four of them. The deficiency of these elements has to be made up. We require the element earth in the form of minerals. Iron, silver, gold and lead, all the metals are essential for us. We take milk that contains mica; we take cumin that contains iron. Mother's milk contains silver of very good quality. We take vegetables that contain many of the minerals. Man takes medicinal power obtained by burning metals like gold, silver and iron but it is not very useful as a greater part of it goes waste. That is why it is suggested that these minerals should be taken in the form of natural food and not in the form of metals.

The reason behind it is that the minerals taken as they are obtained from the mines, do not get absorbed and integrated in our body. Instead, anything taken in the form of mental food, anything developed by our resolution, will be easily absorbed. These things need experimenting which may take a long time. The idea of the food taken by our resolution is very important. It is very subtle. But if it can be developed, we will be able to make up the want of so many elements merely by our resolutions. Making up the deficiency by resolution is difficult, doing so by air is easier.

In the *Bhagwati Sūtra* it has been said that a living creature gets food from six directions east, west, north, south, up and down. In the modern times such things have been confined only to books, meant only for

reading. Without making proper researches and trying to discover things, their true meaning cannot be understood. Well, we take food from every side. Do we not take food with our feet? We certainly do. It has been advised that we should walk bare-footed, and that too on the earth and not on the road. When the shoes and the road come in between, we cannot get the food that we get directly from the earth. By walking bare-foot on the earth, we get all of its elements. We should make use of our head too. We intake all the elements that stimulate the life-force or that are radiated from the solar sphere with our brain. The sleeping, keeping our head in a particular direction is useful, proves this fact. Earlier, the idea of sleeping, keeping our head in a particular direction was supposed to be a convention and a matter of blind faith, but the scientific experiments carried out in the modern times have proved its reality and utility. Many doctors today, are treating various diseases by changing the direction of the head of the bed and they have been successful in their attempts to the extent they had not expected. There is a scientific reason behind this. The streams of elements coming from the Solar Zone attract and draw our brain to them. The elements of the stream in the direction of which the brain falls, get into it. This thing, therefore, is of great importance.

The meaning of taking food is not eating only. Its actual meaning is to take, to draw, to stretch. Anything that we take from outside, either with the mouth or with the feet or with the nose or with the head or with the whole body, is food. In this way we take food from up-side, from down-side, from the left or the right-side, or from our close vicinity. We take food from all the directions and from every sphere. We take air as food through the medium of air. We can get from air the elements that we get from the vegetables if proper researches are made in this field as the atoms of all the elements are there in the atmosphere.

Thus we find that there are four main parts of our food-the eatables, oils, air and the sun. From the point of view of penance, the balanced food is the food that contains all these four things. The food that contains only the eatables and oil and does not contain air and the sun, carnot be said to be balanced food.

There are two things more which do not fall into the category of balanced food but as supplements to the balanced food their mention must be made. These two things are-fast and mental happiness. In the absence of these two the food taken is of no use. You take food, alright, but if your do not know how to observe fast or to go without having food, your food will be a problem for you. Food creates complications. We take food to satisfy our hunger and that very food creates many problems. The people, who go on having food and do not observe fast, do not really know the meaning of fast, they cannot decrease their problems. It is very necessary to connect having food, to having no food and to observing fast. The word 'fast' has got many meanings-to have no food at all, to have food moderately and to lessen the quantity of food.

The digestion of the food taken is proper when the mind is free from worries while having food. Happiness does not mean joy. Joy is an intense emotion like grief. Happiness is not just a passing emotion, it denotes the purity and clarity of heart. A clear sky means the sky that is not blemished by or covered with clouds. The heart that is not affected by emotions like joy, grief, fear etc., is a happy heart. In such a heart the attitudes are at peace. The whole attention is paid only to eating, the happiness of heart is therefore an important part of food.

Food and Mental Health

Another aspect of the deliberation about food is that of mental health. We should be mentally healthy-that is very important for us. Food has a great effect on the mental activities. Our mind is affected by the chemical processes and vice-versa. Thus food gives nourishment not only to the body but to the spirit also. It conducts the activities not only of the body but of the spirit also. As spirit or soul is connected with body, it is, from the point of view of chemical action, a part of the body. The spirit should be strong, this is not the only purpose of taking food, the purpose, in its entirety is that the spirit or soul should not be perverted, excited or annoyed.

There is an incident from the life of Lord Mahāvīra. Once he was staying with some aboriginal people. The people of that region were very furious and quarrelsome. They took pleasure in annoying others for no reason at all. A man was curious to know why all the people of that region were ill-tempered and quarrelsome and why they enjoyed teasing and inflicting pain on others. The answer he got was that they took rough food. The people who always take dry and rough food, get irritable and quarrelsome by nature. One gets irritable if one does not get protein in sufficient quantity. Food is responsible for many mental perversions. At great deal of discussion has been made about food in context of physical and mental health. We get a lot of information from the medical science and dietetics. The standardized tables about food have been determined taking physical and mental health into consideration. The dieticians and the doctors give instructions about the elements and the quantity of food on the basis of those tables.

Food and Non-violence

There is another aspect of the discussion about food and that is non-violence. When we think as to of what type our food should be from the point of view of non-violence, the aspects of physical and mental health are not overlooked, they are kept in mind. But we have the information that health is not our ultimate truth. There is something beyond that, and that is related to all the living-beings. That 'something' is the basis of the equality of the whole of the human race. From the point of view of non-violence, the first precept regarding the real knowledge about food is-the principle of the absolute necessity. We should take food that is necessary for the sustenance of life. We should not take anything that is not necessary for us. We should not take anything simply because it is tasty.

We should make on Observation of life from a wider angle and look at it from all the aspects. Our life is not simply a combination of body and soul, it is something wider and goes beyond the boundaries of body and soul. Food to be taken, therefore, cannot be determined only from the point of view of physical and mental health. The part that food plays in the purification of the feelings of non-violence (love, affection, mercy) celibacy (the feeling of detachment, should always be rept in view.

The importance of having no food (going without food)

There is another aspect of food to which attention should be paid, 'Not to have food' is as important for us as 'to have food'. 'Not having food' is no less important than 'having food'. The topic of food cannot be completely discussed unless and until we take 'not having food' into consideration. To go sometimes without food is as necessary for health as the balanced food. Mahāvīra has suggested three ways of not having food i.e. keeping a fast, eating moderately and resisting the temptation of tasty food. These three are the important principles of food, so they cannot be different from food. To consider food without taking 'not having food' into consideration, is to be confused about food and an injustice to our health too. The people who think only having food to be important and do not realize the importance of 'not having food' suffer not only from obesity but from many other diseases also.

Mahāvīra said, 'Observe fast; do not have food'. The question arose, 'How long should we observe a fast? How long should we not have food?' Mahāvīra said, 'There is no limit for a day or two. Do not have food as long as your soul remains healthy. If you can manage, do not have food for even six months.' To do so may not be possible for each and everybody. There may be a person who may go without having food for such a long time, but he too will ultimately have food. Then Mahāvīra suggested, 'Try something by which you feel that you have taken food, but not to the fill. Bat moderately.' The principle of 'Oonodari' is the principle of eating moderately. It is eating only a limited quantity of food. This is also treating the self by the self. An Ācārya has written.

(The people who take food that is conductive to health and take it moderately and in a limited quantity, do not need a physician to treat them, they are their own physicians.)

A great cause of diseases occurring is the food taken in large quantity and the food that is harmful. Disease will never attack a person who eats moderately and takes food that is conductive to health. Eating moderately means to eat less, to eat less things and to eat only at limited times. To eat less means that no heaviness should be feltin the stomach even after one hour of taking food. A man, on the basis of his experience, can decide the quantity of food he should take. Then, not many things should not be eaten at a time. The secretion of the gall-bladder, that is responsible for the digestion of food is limited. If we eat things more than those that can be digested, the food itself, in such a case, presents a challenge to our health. To eat more than three times is to eat much. Lord Mahāvīra himself ate moderately. It is said that the other people also eat less after they have fallenill. Mahāvīra was not ill, yet he ate moderately. He ate moderately and that is why he did not get ill. The lust for food should not grow so intense that we are so overpowered and overwhelmed by taste that we cannot resist it. From this point of view, the principles regarding renouncing taste are very important.

Having Food and Having no Food

Having food and having no food should go together. The principles of having food should remain related to the principles of having no food. Then only we can understand the meaning of food from spiritual point of view. We have given the greatest importance to food because it is the foremost requirement of life. And it is the foremost requirement because it is an important source of our physical and mental strength.

The food that is useful or beneficial, the food that is taken in a limited quantity and the food that purifies attitudes and instincts. The purity of food lies in the food that has three qualities—i.e. usefulness, limited quantity and purification of attitudes and instincts. That food is pure which is useful, and which is taken in a limited quantity and which purifies attitudes and instincts. This is known as the purification of food.

The explanation of what is usefulness is very lengthy. The brain, the heart, the liver, the lungs, the spleen and the kidneys are the important parts of our body. The eyes, the ears, the nose, the tongue and the skin- they are also very important. The nervous system has got its own importance. What is useful, cannot be decided taking all these parts together. Some things may be useful for the brain, some for the nervous system. What is useful for the sensory nerves may not be useful for the motor nerves. One thing may be useful for the heart, but some other thing for the eyes. We should have a great knowledge to find out what thing will be useful for which part of the body.

Some people have a very narrow view-point and doggedly confine themselves to the word 'usefulness'. There are some physicians who declare, 'The long pepper is very useful.' If a person is suffering from indigestion or lack of appetite, long pepper may be useful. It is alright, but it has got its limits. It may be useful if one is suffering from lack of appetite, but if a person goes on using it daily even after the disease has been cured, it may also prove harmful. The term 'usefulness' is connected with place, time and quantity. Ignoring these three, we cannot think of the usefulness of a thing.

What is useful and what is harmful cannot be explained taking a one-sided view. It is to be explained taking so many things into consideration, taking into consideration place, time and quantity. A child requires protein and milk too. But if a person crosses childhood and grows young and takes protein in excessive quantity, he will be inviting many diseases. The food proves to be useful when a thing is consumed taking place, time and quantity into consideration. Milk is a food but taken without having a subjective view-point and without thinking when and in what quantity it should be taken, it proves harmful, even the nector turns into poison. The next question is what is moderate food? The word 'moderate is closely related to the word 'usefulness'. It indicates quantity. We should know well as to what thing should be taken and in what quantity. Overeating has been said to be a demerit of an ascetic. He will be said to be having this demerit if he eats more than the quantity that has been measured or fixed for him. According to the Ayurveda, overeating is a demerit regarding food. The person who overeats, involuntarily invites many diseases.

Food is of two types-light food and heavy food. Light food mainly contains air. The element of fire is more in it, so it is easily digested. Heavy food mainly contains water. Neither the element of air nor that of fire is dominant in it, it is therefore hard to digest. On eating in a greater quantity it creates diseases. Some of the people of Rajasthan eat a lot of sweets. It seems food and sweets have become synonyms here. There can be no hospitality, no invitation without sweets. The people ate sweets in excess and took milk and curd and butter as well. All these things are heavy. The result was that they began to look old even at the age of thirty or forty. They began to feel old and weak. The death of someone at the age of forty was considered to be a normal event. The people thought that the person who died was old enough. This assumption is changed today. Now a person of the age of forty to sixty is considered to be young. Heavy food makes a man old. Such food is good to look at, delicious to eat but as the element of fire is not there in sufficient quantity, it is not digested fully. The half-digested food causes diseases and a man meets an untimely end.

To take care of quantity is very important in dietics. The quantity of even the light food should not be greater than needed. The quantity of the heavy food should be more less. But strange is our social behaviour. When some friends meet and sit together to have food, no one thinks of the quantity. The person who serves goes on insisting on having more and more and the stomach that is already filled, is filled even more. A person withdraws from eating only when he has eaten much more than the fill. This is so because man does not have a complete knowledge as to in what quantity food should be taken. By insisting on having more and more food, we knowingly or unknowingly cause greater harm to our dear and near ones than our enemies do. The enemy cannot cause so much harm as every activity of his is perceived with suspicion. But we do not suspect our friends or dear ones. We like their insistence. Insisting on having more and more invites disease on the one side and seems to be a token of love on the other. The person having food thinks that he had never before been received with such warmth, that he had never before enjoyed food so much. He keeps thinking about the food served-how delicious it was or how many items were there. He forgets the fact that through the medium of food he has invited so many diseases. The knowledge of quantity is, therefore, very necessary.

The third thing is that the food should be purifying. This fact has been found out after a deep and long research. The food that does not cause perversions in the attitudes is purifying food. The food, by the intake of which good and noble feelings are aroused is purifying food. The food by the intake of which our soul or spirit gets blemished, bad ideas come into mind, causes excitement and lust, the feelings of anger, avarice and violence arise, is the *rājasik or tāmasik* food. The food that provokes evil feelings is not the *sātvik* (purifying) food, that is *tāmasik* food. Such food acti*Vāt*es the lower zones of the body. The purifying food arouses and acti*Vāt*es the zones above the naval. Such food acti*Vāt*es the zones of pleasure, complete purity, knowledge, sight and light. It is very necessary to know the relation of food with the body, the zones of consciousness and the attitudes.

The practice of the purification of food is very necessary for transformation. By the practice of taking useful and purifying food in limited quantity, transformation begins to take place. With the increase of the practice, the electricity of the body and the chemicals change and the activity of the zones of consciousness increases. The zones that should go to sleep, do so and the zones that should rise, do so. The lower zones are lulled to sleep and the upper zones are aroused. The day this awakening takes place, one feels that one has come to a new world and experiences a new life and then one exclaims, 'Today I have got the wealth that I had got never before! Today the awakening has occurred that had occurred never before!'

Prohibition of Non-vegetarianism

From the point of view of non-violence, the second precept regarding discussion about food is-to reduce violence to the minimum. Our life begins with food. The other tendencies and activities take place only when we have taken food. Our behaviour is the outcome of our thoughts, our thoughts are the outcome of our culture, and our culture is the outcome of our tendency. Our behaviour is the touchstone. We are not able to

know what sort of a man internally is. A man is judged and evaluated on the basis of his image that is formed by his behaviour. One cannot have good behaviour, good thoughts and a fine culture without good food. That is why our religious teachers have given top priority to the purification of food. We should start goodness by taking a vow of the purification of food. Not to eat at all is the best thing, but it is not possible to do so. Food is the absolute necessity of our life. But we can at least do one thing that we do not eat what is not necessary for us. Vegetable has been recognized as a necessity of food. The idea behind it - to reduce violence to the minimum, to promote health, satvik culture and thoughts is very clear. Non-vegetarianism is not supported by all of these three view-points. Therefore, from all these view-points, non-vegetarianism is not considered as a necessity. The modern physicists and the dieticians, on the basis of their researches find non-vegetarianism faulty from both the physical and mental points of views. Non-vegetarianism causes unnatural stimulation, reduces tolerance and lessens the span of life by destroying the arteries and the tissues of the body.

Cruelty, momentary frenzy and impatience are the natural outcome of non-vegetarianism. A man can live by eating meat and also by eating grain. We should make a choice between the two and decide whether meat is necessary or com. We have to think whether the possibility of violence is greater in eating meat or in eating grain. The answer definitely will be that eating meat is not necessary, eating grain is necessary because there is no alternative to vegetarianism that may keep a man alive. Non-vegetarianism has got an alternativevegetariarism. A man who gives up eating meat may live on vegetable. A veget man does not eat meat, but a non-vegetarian eats grain, fruits and vegetables because in spite of eating meat, he cannot deny the necessity of vegetarianism. Vegetarianism is the minimum that can be expected to live. It cannot be given up. One cannot do without it. This is the principle of necessity. Non-vegetarianism makes a man more cruel in comparison to vegetarianism. A man does not have to be so cruel in obtaining grain as in obtaining meat. Even the nonvegetarians do not go to the slaughter-house where animals and birds are killed. If they go there, it will be difficult for them to eat meat. There is violence in vegetarianism but much lesser. From the point of view of necessity and the minimization of violence-eating meat cannot be recommended. The people, who were overwhelmed by pity and mercy, declared unanimously. 'Man is a discreet creature. He makes a choice from different alternatives. He, therefore, should not eat meat. While thinking about food from the point of view of violence, we cannot consider only meat that should be prohibited, but all the things obtaining of which requires greater violence and which satisfy the necessity to a lesser extent, should be considered to be prohibited.

Food and celebacy

The fourth aspect of the discussion about food is-celebacy. What type of food a celebate should take is a point that goes beyond even non-violence. Even the food that is suggested for a person practicing non-violence, is sometimes prohibited for a celibate. For him there is a provision of Balanced food. Balanced food is suggested from the point of view of health too. But the meaning of both of them is not the same. A celebrate should take nourishing food, containing fats, but he must sometimes take rough food also. He should maintain a Balance between the two. If he takes rough food only, the feeling of anger increases, he gets irritable and his capacity for mental work is lessened. If he takes nourishing food containing fats only, lust is provoked. A celibate, therefore, should make a compromise in the two types of food. He may take oily food, but he should take care that the additional increases in blood and flesh do not stimulate lust. He may take rough, dry food too, but he should take care that he does not get irritable and excited. He should maintain Balance in such a way that his mental capacity is not lessened and lust to is not stimulated; he does not get unrestrained. Only the discrimination and awareness of a man may be helpful in maintaining this Balance.

Food and Attitudes

The fifth aspect regarding the discussion about food is the purification and refinement of the mental attitudes. The effect of food is confined not only to the outer elements of the body but it affects our mental

attitudes, the subtle elements of the body and the subtle body also. We should, therefore be very careful about food. This carefulness on our part is the main basis of the prohibition of intoxicating substances. Some people think that drinking in a limited quantity is not harmful. Doing so helps in the digestion of food and increases the agility of the body. But drinking has been forbidden not only from the physical point of view but there are other reasons also and they are more important. It is true that anything taken in excess causes harm. This rule applies to wine as well. If it is taken in excess, it will prove to be harmful. The excessive quantity of wine being harmful is not the only reason behind its prohibition. The important thing is that our consciousness should ever remain aware, alert and careful and attentive. Wine and such other intoxicating things break our awareness, faint our consciousness and cause intoxication. That is why wine and all the other intoxicating substance have been forbidden. We should not use anything that stimulates our attitudes and defiles our sense of knowledge. By using intoxicants a man gets senseless and no one can imagine how such a man will behave. All the rules and regulation in the world are meant for the people who are conscious and in their senses. Intoxicating substances are prohibited for us. This is the basic reason for not using wine and the other intoxicating substances. Non-vegetarianism also stimulates and defiles our attitudes and instincts.

The Tamasik attitudes are pre-dominant in the birds, animals and aquatic creatures whose meat is eaten. Meat is an integral part of an animal and tamasic attitudes are there in every particle of it. Will the person who eats such meat be saved and free from the feelings of brutality? It can never be possible. Non-vegetarianism is a big cause in increasing brutality, ignorance, insanity and cruelty in man. It has certainly changed to some extinct a man into a best, otherwise man would not have done things that only an animal can do, not man.

The discussion regarding prohibition of non-vegetarianism was done from the point of view of non-violence, now we shall do so taking instincts and attitudes into consideration. Everybody wishes that our society should not be flooded with crimes; but this cannot be stopped unless our instincts and attitudes are refined and purified. They cannot be purified unless the use of the substances that defile and corrupt them is stopped. From this point of view, the issue of non-vegetarianism needs much discussion and thinking. This is a problem that man wishes to avoid by presenting other problems. But inspite of being out of sight and being avoided, it does make its impact felt and is not solved on its own. It is expected of a man that his soul is clam and at ease and there are few stimulations. To attain this equanimity, proper knowledge of food is very necessary. To slaughter a mute and bitterly crying creature for our own interest is a task of great cruelty. A great cause of doing so is non-vegetarianism. The forbiddance of non-vegetarianism from the points of view of necessity, instinct and pity, therefore, is an important part of the real knowledge of food. From every nook and corner of the world the doctors and the scientists are giving the warning that non-vegetarianism is a great cause of cancer and such other incurable diseases and thereby decreases the life-span and the vegetarianism provided greater nourishment and resistance.

Before slaughtering the animals, proper examination is not made of the creatures flourishing in their bodies; and the diseases from which they might be suffering are transmitted into the bodies of the persons who eat their meat. Then, the way the animals are slaughtered is very painful and horrible and the tension, the fear, the anger and the restlessness arising from such an atmosphere, makes the meat of the animals poisonous. The person who cats this poisonous meat, becomes a victim of so many incurable diseases.

The natural constitution of the body of man is like that of the creatures who live on vegetable

There are innumerable species, big and small, of both the types of animals-that live on vegetable and that eat meat. But the constitution of the body and the structure of hands, feet, teeth, intestines etc. of the creatures who live on vegetable, their capacity of seeing and smelling and the way of eating, all these things are quite different from those of the animals that eat meat. This will be clear from the table that is given below-

S.No Part of the Body		Non-vegetarian	Vegetarian		
01. Teeth		Sharp	Flat mola	Flat molar	
02. Paws		Having sharp nails Nails not		sharp	
03. Motion of the jaws		Move only up and down		Move to all the sides-up	
04. The process of chewing		Devour food without chewing		Swallow food after chewing	
05. Tongue		Rough		Smooth	
06. T	he way of drinking water	drawing tongue out, drink with lips		Without drawing tongue out	
07. Intestines		Short length, equal to the size of the body, six times longer than the trunk the intestines being short, throw the meat out before it gets rotten or poisoned.			
08. Liver and kidneys		Larger in proportion, so that may throw out the waste part of the meat easily.		Smaller in proportion, cannot throw out the waste part of the meat easily.	
09. Hydrochloric Acid in the digestive parts		Ten times more than found in man so that the meat may be digested easily.		Quantity less, cannot digest meat easily	
10.	Saliva	Acidic		Alkaline, ptyaline in Saliva	
11.	Blood-PH	Very little, inclined toward	s acidic	Greater,inclined towards alkaline	
12.	Power of smelling	Very keen		not so keen	
13.	Eyes	can see even at might, shir	ne at night	cannot see at night	
14.	Sound	Harsh		Not harsh	
15.	Young ones	sannot see for a week after	birth	Can see since birth	

Dr. Allen Walker of the John Hopkins University has found out from the microscopic analysis of teeth that man is the descendent of the fruit-eating creatures and not of the meat-eating ones.

From the facts given above we come to know that Nature has made man like cow, horse, camel, bull and giraffe and has provided him the capacity to get and digest only vegetables. No creature in the world, except man, acts contrary to the structure of the body and nature, provided by Nature. A lion will not have vegetarian food and a cow will not eat meat even if they are hungry because that is not their natural food. The beasts of prey live all their life on meat, it is complete food for them. But no man can live on meat for more than two or three weeks because by taking only meat for a long time will produce so much acid and toxins that all the functioning of his body will be disordered. Even the people, who take food contrary to nature, have to take some vegetable or the other because a non-vegetarian food is not a complete food for man and it lessens the life-span too. The average life-span of the Eskimos, who are compelled to live on non-vegetarian food due to their living conditions sonly 30 years, whereas on vegetarian food a man can easily live a full and a long life. All the facts given above prove that Nature has made man in such a way that he should have vegetarian food.

Non-vegetarianism-The cause of diseases

Lord Mahāvīra has vehemently made an attack on non-vegetariarism. Jaina religion has considered it heinous from the point of view of violence and impurity of attitudes, emotions and feelings, but all the scriptures and the great men of the world have pleaded the presence of Almighty God in each and every creature and have regarded non-violence as the greatest religion. In most of the religions, the demerits of non-vegetarianism have been dealt in great detail and it has been told that it decreases the life-span and leads a man to his fall. The killing of any poor mute creature has been forbidden by all the religions. Some people, out of selfishness and for the pleasure of the organs and taste, say that their religion does not prohibit non-vegetarianism; but it is not true. It has been discussed in detail from the point of view of body and soul too. It has been proved from the scientific researches that non-vegetarianism is harmful in many ways. Vegetarian food contains fibrous substance in great quantity and they help in cleaning the bowels. With their help the poisonous substances are excreted. If there is a shortage of such substances in the food, cancer of intestines and other diseases may be caused. Solid conclusions have been drawn by great doctors and scientists as to how harmful non-vegetarianism is to us. It invites incurable diseases.

From the research carried in the State University of New York, Buffalo, it has been found out that in America, more than 47,000 children are born every year, who, their parents being non-vegetarians, are born with many diseases. These children cannot get completely healthy even after they have grown up.

Non-vegetarianism-Heart-disease and High Blood Pressure

Accumulation of the layers of cholesterol on the inner walls of the arteries is the main cause of these diseases. The American doctor Michael Brown, who won the Nobel Prize in the year 1985, and Dr. L. Goldstein have proved that the prevention of cholesterol is very important to avoid heart-disease. In vegetables, the quantity of this element is very little, almost ril. Its quantity in the eggs is maximum. It is found in a great quantity in the fats obtained from the animals. Taking 100 grammes of egg daily means taking cholesterol more than two and a half times the quantity that is required. The number of the respirators, is decreased in the bodies of the persons who eat meat or eggs, with the result that the quantity of cholesterol in the blood increases. This increase causes the diseases of heart, kidneys and stone and the likelihood of the diseases of intestines, breasts and ovary.

Dr. M. Rock of Britain, after a survey, found out that the vegetarians get lesser infectious and fatal diseases in comparison to the non-vegetarians. They are healthier, slimmer, more thoughtful and have a calmer disposition.

The B.B.C. has been giving a warning to the non-vegetarians by telecasting a weekly programme on vegetarianism that they may catch fatal diseases.

Heart-attack, cancer, blood-pressure, obesity, constipation, infectious diseases and the diseases of kidneys, liver and stone affect much more the people of the western countries where non-vegetarianism is widely prevalent. In India, Japan and South Africa, where non-vegetarianism is not so much prevalent, these diseases are caused less.

Cancer may be caused by Non-vegetarianism

Many poisonous substances are produced in the bodies of all the creatures. They are taken out of the body only in the form of urine and stool. When an animal is slaughtered, and such substances remain in its body, there is not way of their getting out. When the action of the heart is stopped, all the organs of the body get inactive. Thus, the poisonous substances remain accumulated in great amounts in the bodies of the animals slaughtered. All these poisonous substances get into the body of the person who eats their meat.

The animals that are slaughtered, are definitely given harmones, antibodies and many other medicines of this type. These poisonous things get into the body of the person who eats their meat. B.E.S. (a medicine) is given to the animals like cows to make them fat. The persons, eating the meat of such animals, may develop cancer. The symptoms of cancer have been found in the women (and even in their daughters) who were given B.E.S. twenty-five years ago. The increases of cancer in the non-vegetarians is not surprising. It has been found out from a survey that the death-rate in 19 out of 25 countries where the people are non-vegetarians, is very high. In is low in 5 countries.

Cancer is very scarce in the countries where the people are vegetarians. In the years 1975, the number of the people having cancer was one out of 10,000 in Mumbai whereas it was 5.5 percent in England. In Egypt, the number of the black vegetarians having cancer is very little, almost riil, while the number of the non-vegetarians having cancer was as much as that in England. No case of cancer has been found in the monastary of Kopt, where the people do not take tea and coffee and do not eat meat. A committee of the American senators, presenting its report on the topic 'The aim of America regarding food' says, 'The possibility of cancer and heart troubles from eating meat cannot be denied.'

In Australia, where meat is eaten more than in any other country and where 130 kilos of beaf are consumed everywhere, cancer of intestines is found most of all. Dr. Andrew Gold has, in his book 'Diabetes : Its causes and Treatment' has advised to take up to vegetarianism.

The diseases like ulcreative colitis, appendicitis, cartinema of colon and rectum are found more in the non-vegetarians than in the vegetarians.

Non-vegetarianism and other diseases

The urine of the non-vegetarians is generally acidic. To maintain the ration of urine and alkali in the blood, the alkali from the bones keep on mixing in the blood. On the contrary the urine of the vegetarians is alkaline in nature. The alkali from the bones of their bodies is, therefore, not get mixed in the blood. So their bones remain strong. In the report of Harvard Medical School (1969, p. 458). Dr. A. Watchman and Dr. C.S. Burnseen have given a list of some of the diseases caused by non-vegetarianism. They are as follows-

Epilepsy-may be caused by having infected meat.

The diseases of the kidneys-Meat, containing protein in a great quantity, damages the kidneys.

Rheumatoid arthritis, gout etc.-Eating meat increases the quantity of uric acid in the blood that may cause these diseases.

 $E the roscleros is -Thickering of the arteries -This disease is {\it c} aused by the polysaturated fats and cholesterol that is there in the meat.}\\$

The rottening of the intestines-Disease like diarrhoea and lack of appetite are caused by eating meat and eggs. The stomach gets weakened and the intestines are rotten.

Loss of resistance-Hating meat and eggs causes loss of resistance and the body cannot resist even a minor disease. It also causes loss of memory. Growth is hampered. In the opinion of some of the American and the English doctors, eggs are poison for man.

Skin diseases-eczema, pimples etc.-Vitamin A is very necessary for the protection of the skin. It is found in abundance in carrots and green vegetables. These vegetations give protection to the skin. On the contrary, meat, eggs and wine etc. encourage skin diseases. Most of the patients feeling a burning sensation in the skin have been found to be non-vegetarians.

Other diseases such as migraine, infectious diseases, diseases pertaining to the monthly course in women have been found more in the non-vegetarians.

In short we can say that vegetarian food prevents almost every diseases whereas non-vegetarian food encourage diseases. The former increases the life-span whereas the latter decreases it.

Some important scientific facts about non-vegetarianism

Two researchers of Gwalior-Dr. Jasraj Singh and Dr. C.K. Dewas conducted a research on 400 prisoners of the Gwalior prison and came to the conclusion that 85% of the 250 non-vegetarian prisoners were found to be irritable and of quarrelsome nature whereas 90% of the rest of the 150 vegetarian prisoners were to be found having a calm and cool nature and a cheerful disposition.

Dr. William C. Roberts, an American specialist, says that in America, a greater number of the non-vegetarians are heart patients, whereas very few vegetarians contact this disease.

According to another report there is an insect Brain-bug, by the bite of which an animal gets mad. But this madness takes almost ten years to develop fully. In the meanwhile, if someone eats of the animal bitten by that insects, the diseases is transmitted into his body.

It is a well-known fact that before being slaughtered, the animals, birds and fishes are not examined carefully and the diseases from which they might be suffering from are not found out. The animals and the fishes also may be infected with so many diseases like cancer, tumour etc. and by eating their meat, these diseases are transmitted into the bodies of the persons who eat their meat.

In America, more than 40,000 cases, caused by eating infected eggs and meat are reported every year.

According to the Health Education Council, the cause of 90% of deaths is food-poisoning caused by non-vegetarianism.

When the animal, about to be slaughtered in the slaughter-house, finds death approaching to it in the form of the butcher, it begins to tremble with fear. It anticipates death and gives up eating and drinking water a day or two earlier. Out of fear, some of its faces is also excreted. The meat contains so many elements-blood, semen, urine and stool etc. Before being slaughtered, the helpless creature struggles hard to save its life. When this struggle proves futile, it gets furious and excited. It gets mad with anger, foam comes out of its mouth. Its blood-pressure gets high and makes its meat poisonous. When a man eats this meat, the adrenalin is transmitted into his body and leads him to vanous fatal diseases. Chlorinated hydrocarbon, taken along with adrenalin, produces a serious danger of hear attack.

In order to preserve fish and eggs, boric acid is used. It presents a serious threat to health. How harmful, polluted, dirty and infected with diseases is the meat obtained from the slaughter-houses, can be imagined by the facts that even the Ultra-modern slaughter-house of Europe, that are equipped with the latest instruments and technique, cannot be said to be ideal from hygienic point of view, what to talk of the Indian slaughter-houses.

Dr B.B. Amari of America and Dr. Inhan of England, have in their world famous books, 'The latest knowledge about nutrition' and 'The nature of the patients' have clearly recognized the fact that eggs are as harmful to man as poison.

Dr. R.J. William of England says, 'A person having eggs may feel active in the beginning, but later on he may contact serious disease like eczema, paralysis and heart trouble.

Vegetarianism-More nourishing and beneficial

That we do not get sufficient protein or nutrition from vegetarian food is a wrong notion. It is clear from the researches made by scientists that from vegetarian food we get protein of very high quality. Soyabean and groundnut contain more protein than meat and eggs. No less protein is found in the pulses also. If pulses and green vegetables are taken in proper quantities along with wheat, rice, bajra and maize, we get not only protein but also a more Balanced food which makes a man healthy and stronger and enables him to enjoy a longer life span than a non-vegetarian.

Many researchers have found out that the vegetarians are stronger and more laborious, can carry greater weights and have a calm, cool and happy disposition. The studies carried on in Japan prove that the vegetarians are not only healthy and free from diseases but enjoy a longer life-span also and possess a keener intellect.

Hence to say that non-vegetarianism provides greater strength is a wrong conception. A comparative table of various food materials has been given in the book 'Nutritive value of Indian food' published by the National Institute of Nutrition, Hyderabad. From this table it is clear that there is no shortage of protein and other elements that are conductive to health in the vegetarian food.

This table also shows that non-vegetarians food contain no fibrous substances and it has been proved that these substances play an important part in the prevention of diseases. Vitamins too are necessary for our health. Vegetarian food is the source of these vitamins too.

Having come to know the virtues of the vegetarian food, the campaign in its favour is getting stronger in the western countries. More than 10 lacs of people in Britain have totally taken to vegetarianism and there is an astonishing increase in the number of such people.

Vegetarianism-The Financial Aspect

From monetary point of view, non-vegetarian food is costlier than the vegetarian food. One pound of meat is obtained from a he-goat after it has consumed 7 pounds of grain.

It is often said that we get protein and nutrition from eggs at a very low cost. But it is simply a misguiding propaganda. The following table shows the cost of one gram of protein that we get from different substancesó

Cr"
The cost of one gram of protein
14 Paise
04 Paise
03 Paise
02 Paise

The following table shows the cost of 100 grams of calory that we get from different substances

Substance	Cost of 100 grams of calory
Egg	90 Paise
Wheat	09 Paise
Pulses	08 Paise

Soyabean 05 Paise

It is clear from the above tables that we get protein from grain and pulses at a lower cost than we get from eggs. Besides we also get the other important substances like vitamins, fibers, minerals and carbohydrates etc. that are found in a negligible quantity in the non-vegetarian food.

Considering from monetary point of view, it has been found out that in order to obtain one kilogram of protein from meat, the particular animal has to be fed seven or eight kilograms of protein. It has also been estimated that in order to obtain one calory from meat, seven vegetable calory is to be spent. The figures of the Agriculture Department of America show that five average families can be accomposated on the land that is required to feed only one animal. An American consumes, on an average, 120 kilograms of meat every year. One ton of grain is required to obtain it. Eight persons can be fed for the whole year if he takes 120 kilograms of grain directly, instead of eating meat. Prof. George Borgstorm is of the opinion that half the population of the world can be fed with the vegetable food that is spent on the animal world is America alone.

If we take into consideration the additional benefits that we get in the form of manure and the gas energy from the cowdung, it gets clear that by slaughtering such animals we get as much gain as one may get by burning currency notes for making tea. There is no sense in cutting open the stomach of a hen that lays a golden egg daily.

According to Dashrath Bhai Thakkar, the Honorary Secretary of the Bombay Humanitarian League, the animal world adds Rupees 25,500 crores every year to our national income in the form of milk, manure, energy and toiling and carrying weights. Besides, after death, their hides and bones are also used. We should feel grateful to these animals that provide us so much wealth and serve us. It is our ungratefulness that in the return of their doing so much for us, we send them to the slaughter-houses.

By forbidding animal-slaughter, we get no less indirect benefits than the direct ones. When manure is obtained at a cheaper rate, the cost of food grains will be lower and then even the poor people will be able to have food to their fill. The diseases arising from mal-nutrition will be decreased and the money spent on them will be saved. When the cost of the food grain is low, the index of dearness will fall down with the result that the money that is given as dearness allowance, will be saved. There will be fewer labour movements and strikes, the production will increase and the prices will come down with the increase in production there will be an increase in the national income and our country will not have to borrow from the other countries. To stop animal-slaughter is not a matter of religion, morality or mercy but also a matter of great importance from the financial and health point of view.

Food and change and modification in habits

Besides the facts given above, the purification of food is necessary for the modification of habits too. The person who has not purified his food, can never change and modify by our zones of consciousness and awareness. There are many points, many ones in our brain. They conduct our attitudes. A man gets sleep. There is a controlling zone in the brain. There are different zones for the different actions like laughing, crying and thinking. There are also zones that are responsible for memory and for imaging. A man acquires the personality or the habits in accordance with the zone that gets actiVāted or awakened. All the activities of life are conducted by the zones of the brain. These zones are actiVāted and awakened by the electric current and by different chemicals. The brain has got its own chemicals. The brain needs food just as the body needs food. The brain needs tonic just as the body needs tonic. The scientists today are trying to find out the tonics for the brain. In the olden times, the persons having transcendental knowledge too had made many researches in his field. The books of Ayurveda are full of the descriptions of such researches. We find a long discussion on the tonics of brain and on the substances that strengthen or weaken the nervous system. There is a close relation between the electric currents and the chemicals and the brain. Chemicals are formed by the food that we take. Thus food, too, is related with the brain. Chemicals are formed by the food that we take. Thus food, too, is related with the brain. The chemicals will be formed in accordance to the food taken and the brain will function in accordance to the chemicals and our conduct and behaviour and ideas and habits will be formed in accordance to the chemicals. In this way the cycle goes on.

Without having a proper knowledge of food we cannot mould or modify our habits. Without the purification of food we cannot change or modify our nature. A man may change so many things, but habits and nature cannot be changed unless he makes changes in the order of food. There is a close relation between the two. Our attention, first of all, should be centred on the food. The meaning of food is very wide. Only eating with the mouth is not food. Everything that we receive from outside is food. The air that we breathe will out nostrils is food. The atoms that we receive from outside atmosphere in order to make a speech are also food. The mental atoms that we collect for contemplation are food too. All these come into the category of food. We should take food in this wider context. When we do so, all the problems will be solved. If the part of the brain that is responsible for the control of food loses its control, a man goes mad. The question arises who is responsible for maddening him. The answer, obviously is-food. Wine and intoxicating hemp are also food. Just take hemp; everything will be in topsy-turvy; the whole world seems to be whirling. All this happens because of taking hemp - a kind of food. We are familiar with the effect of intoxicants. Suppose a person has got a weak memory. He takes Brāhmī, a herb, and his memory is enhanced. The scientists of today are trying to find out chemicals that may enhance - and decrease-memory. They think that memory is not necessary for each and everybody. The memory of the persons who are thieves and dacoits and murders and who are violent, should be weakened so that the number of crimes may be decreased. Attempts are being made to find out substances that may increase and enhance memory. According to the Ayurvedic concept, the substances that enhance memory are - Gorakhmundi Shatavari, Brāhmī, Shankha Pushpi etc. The scientists today are fully absorbed in trying to find out what the functions of different chemical. They are preparing different chemicals on the basis of their findings and researches. The $\bar{A}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}s$ of the Ayurveda discovered substances and explained the way to prepare chemicals from those substances. There is no difference in the procedure. The main thing is to produce a particular type of chemical in the brain with the help of those substances and to enhance or to weaken the capacity of the brain. Both of these tasks can be accomplished. The power and the capacity of the brain may be developed as well as decreased. Both in Ayurveda and in Allopathy, not so much researches have been made in the direction of modifying the nature and the habits of man as have been made regarding the effects of food from physical point of view. The Acaryas of the Ayurveda have told about different types of food, providing life and vigour, conducive to stimulating appetite and providing nutrition and strength.

There is a type of food that increases and enhances the life-force and also maintains it. There is another type of food that nourishes and strengthers the body. A third type of food stimulates the fire in the body. There is yet one more type of food that increases and enhances strength. There are many other types of food as well.

There are three types of elementary substances- that suppress and subdue, that stimulate and that maintain a balance. There are some substances that suppress and subdue $v\bar{a}t$, pita and cough.

The substance that stimulate pitta, stimulate anger. There is a close relation between pitta and anger. The feeling of anger of the person whose pitta is stimulated, will be stimulated. The greed and avarice of the person whose cough is stimulated, will increase. The substance that stimulate cough, also stimulate greed. Some people are greedy. In spite of listening to the sermons hundreds of times and being told not to have the feelings of greed, no change is brought about in their mentality. But then what can the poor fellows do? They are always suffering from cough. How can they get rid of the mentality of greed? The moment their cough is brought under control, there will be a change is their greedy mentality. There is a close relation between cough and greed. The substances that stimulate the element of vat cause depression and the feelings of hopelessness. The person who is suffering from vat also suffers from depression and mental strain. There is a close relation between vat and depression and tension.

OUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

1. Easy-type question

Write a short essay on the consciousness regarding food and prohibition of non-vegetarianism.

2. Short-answer-type questions

- What type of food should be taken by us? 1.
- 2. For what purpose is food taken?
- 3. What is the importance of fasting?
- 4. What type of food should be taken for the purification of feelings?
- 5. Why should non-vegetarianism be prohibited?
- 6. Write a short essay on the utility of vegetarianism.
- 7. Write a short note on Balanced food.
- 8. How is food related to mental health and celibacy?

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Compiled By-Samani Chinmaya Prajñā

LESSON-8

Part-B : Jaina Culture and Art JAINA PLACES OF PILGRIMAGE

Places of pilgrimage in India are related historically with the religious tradition. They are symbols of non-aggressive Indian culture. They are considered to be sacred places which strengthen the religious faith of the devotees. In reality, a place of pilgrimage is a special spot where some great follower of spiritual discipline has achieved self-realisation and in the process has sanctified that place with his sacred vibrations. In the Jaina canonical texts (āgamās), the word 'tīrtha' was orginally used to denote pravacana which means the twelve original primary canonical texts called Dvādaśārīga and the fourfold religious order (the caturvidha sarīgha). This word 'tīrtha' literally means to cross a river safely. It is in this sense that the Jaina 'āgamās' and Jaina 'śramaṇa sarīgha' which help the soul to cross safely the ocean of worldly existence have been called 'bhāva (spiritual) tīrtha'. Etymologicully, the word has been explained as - that which helps to swim across the ocean of worldly existence is a 'tīrtha', and thus those places of pilgrimage which become instrumental for crossing over the ocean of worldly existence are 'called dravya (material) tīrtha.'

In addition to the above mentioned tirthas, some places of pilg rimage have been mentioned in the Jaina works. They are designated as 'sthāvara' (immobile) tīrthas or permanent places of pilgrimage. They are believed to purify faith. The mention of these places of pilgrimage is found in the Niryukties (Commentaries) of Ācārāriga, Āvašyaka and other Sūtrās (Scriptures). These treatises are believed to belong to the Maurya period of Indian history. Well known among the Jaina 'stha vara tīrthās' are Astāpada, U jjayanta, Gajagrapada, Dharma-cakra, Ahicchatra, Pārśvanātha, Rathāvarta Farvat, Camrotpāta, Śatrunjaya, Sammed Śikhara, the pillar created by a 'Deva' (a god) in Mathurā, etc. Amongst the ancient places of pilgrimage are included Hastināpura, Sauripura, Mathurā, Ayodhyā, Kāmpilyapura, Vārāņasi (Kāšī), Śrāvasti, Kṣatriyakunda, Mithilā, Rājagrha, Pāvāpuri, Bhaddilpura, Campāpurī, Kauśāmbī, Ratnapura, Candrapurī etc. Many of these places were famous as the places where the Tirthankaras were born or their ceremony of renunciation was performed or where they attained omniscience or where they achieved 'nirvāṇa'. But most of them are now extinct. These places are called "kalyāṇaka" (Propitious). Some other ancient places of pilgrimage which are famous are listed here: Prabhās Pāṭan Candraprabha, Stambha tīrtha, Stambhanaka Pārśvanātha, Bhṛgukaṭccha, Aśayāvabodha, Šakuņikā Vihāra, - Muni Suvrata, Soor-Park, Šankhapura - Šankheswar Pāršvanātha, Carup-Pārśwanātha, Taranga hill-Ajitnātha, Arbud Giri (Mt. Ābu), Satyapuriya- Mahāvīra, Svarna Giri- Mahāvīra, Karhetaka-Pāršvanātha, Vidišā (Bhilāsā), Nasikya-Candraprabha, Āntriksa-Pāršvanātha, Kulpāk-Ādinātha, Khandagiri (Bhuvaneśwara), Śravan Belgolā. These places of pilgrimage are also known as Paurānika. (Mythological) in that. Although the description of these places is not to be found in ancient Jaina works, their glory has been eulogised in some 'kalpas', Jaina Biographies, ancient Hymns and Psalms. Most of these places have now become extinct, except a few one which are still existing. We find the mention of some places of Jaina pilgrimage in the verses 329-332 of the Ācārānga Niryukti.

The meaning of the above verses is as follows:

'I shall now relate the causes and their characteristics which purify the feelings associated with 'darśana' (right faith), right knowledge, right conduct, penance, detachment and modesty.'' (Verse 329)

'The Lord *Tīrtharikarās*, their religious scriptures, the great Ācāryās who spread the glory of *pravacana*,

and the munis (ascetics) who have made special attainments like omniscience, mind-reading knowledge, clairvoyance, supernatural powers like protean, etc. are worthy of being welcome, paid obeisance to, being seen, eulogising, worshipping with food, clothing etc. By doing so, the virtues related with faith, knowledge, conduct, penance, and non-attachment get purified."

"I bow down to the following sacred places related with the *tirthankaras*" birth, birth-consecration, renunciation, sojourn during *sādhanā*, omniscience, and '*nirvāṇa*'. Ibow down to the Jaina idols at the mansions of heaven, the mountain called Meru, the temples of *Nandiśwara* and the cities of the *Vyantar-Devas* which are beneath this earth". (331)

"I bow the holy places of pilgrimages viz., *Aṣṭāpāda*, Ujjayanta, Gajagrapada, *Dharmacakra*, *Ahicchanavasthita* Pārśvanātha, Rathavart-*Padatīrtha* and *Cāmarot pāta*". (verse 332)

These verses prove beyond doubt the ancientness of the sacred places of pilgrimage of the Jains. Although only a few of these ancient places of pilgrimage exits now, most of them having been swallowed up by time, their importance can be gauged from the description in the ancient literature. It is not possible to describe all the ancient and modern places of pilgrimage of the Jains in one single lesson and therefore we shall only mention a few of the important ones here.

1.1 Šatruojaya

This place of pilgrimage is known after a cluster of hills known by the same name. It is a couple of miles away from Pālitānā railway station in Saurāṣṭra (Gujrat). On one of these hills stands the imposing temple of Bhagwan R sabhdeva. Of all the Jaina places of pilgrimage, now existing, this is considered to be the most ancient. The hills of Satruñjaya are believed to be the place of Briagwan R sabhadev's sojourn and is also believed to be the site where Bharata Cakravartī had created a Caitya (temple) studded with gold. However, not much is written about it in our ancient literature. In the 16th Chapter of Jhātādharma Kathā Sūtra it is mentioned that the five Pāndavās had achieved nirvān by fasting on Mount Satrunjay. In addition, a description of several monk-disciples of Bhagwan Neminatha having achieved liberation by performing penance on Mount Satrurijaya is found in Antakriddasārīga Sutra. This at least proves that this place has been a Jaina. place of pilgrimage for thousands of years. It has been renovated again and again. According to Jaina sources renovations were carried out by the Kings of the mythological age. The chief among them are Bharata Cakravartī, Daridavīrya, Išān Iridra, Sagat Cakravartī and the Pāriḍavas. During the historical times, they were rebuilt by Javadsah, Šeeladitya, Javad Mantri, Samarasah (Vikram Samvat 1371) and Karmasah (V.S. 1587). In ancient treatises called 'Trihoddhāra Kalpa' and 'Nābhi nandana Jinoddhāra Prabhāndha', the work of renovation carried out by Bharata Chakravarti, Sagar, the Pāṇḍavas, Javadshah and VāgaBhaṭṭa are given prominence. The resolvation, alluded to by 'Satrunjaya Tirthoddhara Prabhandha' in V.S. 1587, is believed to be the seventh one. According to various other sources of information, two very violent invasions were carried out by the Mohammedans on Satrunjaya which caused a lot of damage to the temples; some temples were completely destroyed. An elaborate description of this place of pilgrimage is available in some historical and literary sources available in Gujarat. Among them, mention should be made of 'Prabandha Cintāmani', 'Prabandha Koṣa', 'Purātana Prabandha Sangraha', 'Vividha Tīrthakalpa' and 'Kumārpāla' Prabhandha'. It is easy to deduce from this that this particular tīrtha had become very popular in Gujarata, Rājasthana, Madhya Pradesh etc. This temple was built out of wood upto the time of King Kumārpāla. It was renovated by VāgBhaṭṭa, the son of minister Udayan. Vastupāla and Tejapāl had built several temples at Satruñjaya. During the invasion of Alla-ud-din Khilji, these temples were desecrated and destroyed. He had caused similar damage to temples in Chittor, Jalore and other places. Now, on account of all such reasons, only a few ancient monuments are still preserved.

At present, the oldest idol available here is that of Sīmandhara Swāmī. The edict engraved thereon

mentions its date as V.S. 1064. A glass encasing has been fixed on this idol and it is covered with black paint. As a result of this, most of the common people visiting the place, can not affirm its date. The writing here mentions the name, of a Jaina ascetic by the name of Sangam Siddha. He belonged to *Vidyādhara Āmnāya* (Sect). He bowed before the idol of Pundrik Ādinātha which existed here and began a fast unto death. After his attainment of auspicious death, *Śreṣṭhi Āmnāyak*, the son of Radheyak, eracted this idol here.

There are about 150 dharmaśālās (public rest - houses) on the road stretching from Pālitānā to Śatruń jaya which is about 1- Km. long. The Climb on the hill is about 4 Km. There is a tar road. The number of steps are about 3700. Climbing up of Mount Śatruńjaya is considered by the Śwetāmbara sect of the Jains to be more auspicious than climbing up of any other places of pilgrimage. There are about 3500 temples on this hill. It is a veritable fortress of Jaina temples. Some of these temples are incomparable examples of sculpture and architecture. This hill has two main peaks. There are only temples of the Śwetāmbara sect on the first peak. On the second peak, there are also temples of other sects. In one of the Śwetāmbara temples, there is an ancient idol of Bhagwān Śāntinātha with nine alters. Amongst the Śwetāmbara temples on the Śatruńjaya hill, those of Adiśwarjī, Kumārpāl, Vimalśāha and King Samprati deserve to be mentioned as most popular. Thousands of worshippers of both sexes who have performed 'varṣi-tapa'. (undertaking fasting continuously on every alternate days for a year) come here to end their vows on the 'Akṣaya Tritŋā' i.e. 3rd day of the bright fortnight of the lunar month of vaiśākha (May). The view of this festival is magnificent. This centre is incomparable both from the points of view of popularity and art.

1.2 Sammeda-Šikhara

Shree Sammeda-Śikhar is a very sacred, ancient and miraculous centre. It is situated at Pāraśvanātha hills in Bihāra. This place is also called Isari. It is 152 K.M. away from Gayā. For pilgrimage of this place, it is best to alight at 'Parasnāth' Rly. station (on the Dhanbād and Hajāribāg line of the Eastern Railway). There are two Jaina Temples in the vicinity of the station itself and Sammed-Śikhar is clearly visible from there.

Sammeda-Śikhar is the foremost of all the Jaina sacred places of pilgrimage. That is why it is called 'Tīrtha-rāja' (i.e., the king of holy-place'). It is also called 'anāditīrtha' i.e. a holy-place from time immemorial. Every Jaina believer in idol-worshipping considers it his great good fortune to visit it and pay his obeisance. Sammed-Śikhar and Ayodhyā are believed to be two eternal holy places. It was predestined that all the Tīrtharikarās shall be born in Ayodhyā and be liberated from Sammed-Śikhar, but due to the effect of hunḍāvasarpinī kāla doṣa (defective time-cycle), only five Tīrtharikarās were born in Ayodhyā and only twenty achieved liberation at Samræd-Śikhar. Inspite of this, many Lord Tīrtharikarās have made it sacred with the nectar of their speech and their divine appearance. A large number of monks have achieved their liberation from here. Even so evil a man as Madhukaiṭavam was turned into a kind gentle man in the sacred atmosphere of this place and got rebirth in the heaven. It is believed that any holy person who visits this place with reverence and pays obeisance with genuine feeling does not have to undertake more than fifty re-births.

According to a traditional belief, Saudharmeridra had created a swastika mark at the spot from which the Lord Tirtharkarās had attained liberation. The pious souls used to undergo any hard-ships for coming there for holy view of that spot and to meditate. After a long time, 'engraving' were created on these spots, but later on they also got annihilated. Again, they were re-created. Evidence is available to show that such recreation look place in the time of King Śrenika. The muslim aggression caused much damage to the temples here, but large hearted philanthropists resurrected them in course of time and preserved the importance and dignity of this place from ancient time upto this day. Worshippers visit this place with the sacred purpose of concentrating their mind in conduct of twenty Tirtharkarās.

1.3 Campāpurī

Campāpurī which is now known as Nāthanagara is situated at a distane of 5 Km. from Bhāgalapura in

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Bihāra. All the five propitious events of the life of Bhagwān Vāsupūjya, the 12th Tīrthankara, took place here. This is the only place which has the distinction of all the five propitious events of a Tīrthankara's life taking place in the same town. On account of this event, this place has a reputation of its own. There are two majestic and worth-seeing columns in an ancient temple of this place.

It is said that out of the fifty-two states (or provinces) established by Bhagwān R sabhadeva, the state of Ariga had its capital here. It was also famous for its culture. Even during the Buddhistic era, it was considered among the six great metropolis in the country. It is said that 'Harivariśa Purāṇa' was also composed here. This city flourished on the bank of the Ganges where Dharmaghoṣa Muni attained his auspicious death wilfully. Here, on the banks of Campā, a tributary of the Ganges, is situated a worth-seeing ancient Jaina Temple. This is a miraculous centre where Padmastha, Āncala, Aśoka and many other ascetics attained liberation. On the 14th day of the bright fortright, in the lunar month of bhādrapada, a great number of worshippers arrive here to celebrate the nirvān of Bhagwān Vāsupujya.

Thus, we may conclude that places of pilgrimage are the sites sanctified by the practitioners of spiritual sādhanā through thier devotion to 'sādhanā' and their wisdom, knowledge, meditation, penance and attainment of auspicious death. By going close to these places people make efforts to swim across the ocean of mundane existence. This is why the sacred places of pilgrimage have retained their importance from ancient times.

1.4 Girnāraji

Ācārya Vīrasena has considered this a propitious centre in his treatise called *Dhavalā Tīkā*. This centre is known for three propitious events in the life of Bhagwān Neminātha the 2nd *Tīrtharikara* - his renunciation ceremony, his achievement of *kevalajñāna*, (omniscience) and *nirvān* (Liberation). Also his Gaṇadhara Varadatta and many other disciple-monks attained their liberation at this centre.

This centre is situated at a distance of 170 Km. from Sarunjaya (Pālitānā) and 149 km. from Sonagarh. For reaching Giranāra, one has to first reach Junāgarh which is 51 km. from there. The steps to climb the mountain begin from Junāgarh. One reaches the first peak after climbing 4400 steps. Besides Jaina temples, there is a dark cave here which has to be crossed in the sitting posture. This cave is known as Rājula cave, and it is in this place where Jaina nun Rājamatī performed her penences. After this, one has to climb 109 steps to reach 'Gomukha Kunāa'. Here there is a well in which there are 24 steps. Ahead of Gomukha Kunāa is the fortress of 'Khengar' and many Jaina temples. After climbing a few more steps, one reaches the peak of Aniruddha Kumāra. Close to this is the temple of Ambā Devī which is a place of pilgrimage of the Hindus. After climbing 700 more steps, one reaches the peak called 'Śambu Kumāra'. After this the fourth peak is 'Pradyumna Kumāra'. There are no steps here hence, the climbing is very difficult. One has to climb 2500 steps to reach the fifth peak. This is the place where Bhagwān Neminātha attained the liberation. For reaching here, one has to climb 9999 steps; of all the sacred places of the Jains, this centre is the most difficult of access.

1.5 Rājagṛha (Rājagici)

This place is situated some 13-14 miles to the south of *Bihār*-śarif. It is also called '*Girivrāja*' because it is surrounded by five hills. This place has been a favourite centre for the Jains, Hindus and Buddhists from olden days. We find many names for it in the Jaina Literature, such as *Vasumatī*, *Canakpur*, *Rṣabhapur*, *Kṣitipraiṣṭhān*, *Girivraja*, *Rājagir*, *Paṇca-śaila* etc.

It has been accepted as a place of pilgrimage even before the times of Lord Mahāvīra. Such auspicious events as conception, birth, renunciation, and attainment of omniscience in the life of Muni Suvratanātha, the 20th *Tīrtharīkara*, took place here. Munirāj Jīvandhar, Śwetā Sudarva, Vaiśākha, Viduccar, Gandha Madan, Pritikar Dhanadatta and many other ascetics attained their final liberation on the five mountains, surrounding this area, which are called - *Vipulācala*, *Ratnagirī*, *Uadayagirī*, *Arunagirī* (*Svarnagirī*) and *Vaibhāgirī*. It is

considered to be a miraculous centre on account of these important events. Lord Mahāvīra sojourned here for a number of times, and it was here that the doubts of King Śreņika were resolved. This place is considered important also for these reasons. Sulasa Kumāra (Kālasaukari-Putra) who was the son of a butcher sought the shelter of Mahāvīra at this place and became his great worshipper. Great importance is given to this place for it is deemed to be a redeeming place for sinners. It is said that during the first century A.D., a 'sarigha' of lady pilgrims arrived here from Sopara (Surat). A fisherwoman by the name of Pūtigandha had visited these pilgrims. She became a mandicant later on. She performed penance in 'Neela Guhā' or Blue Cave here and attained the auspicious death through fasting unto death.

There are four Jaina Temples on the first mountain, viz., Vipulācala. There is also a monument commemorating the four propitious events of 20th Tīrtharikara Muni Suvratanātha. A 'Samavasarana Maridira' (Temple of congregation of Tīrtharikara) of great size was built here in 1986 A.D. which is worth seeing. It is built on the same spot where earlier there was a small but ancient monument in the form of a column. The second mountain is called 'Ratnagiri'. A black idol of Muni Suvratnātha adorns the temple on this mountain. On this mountain, you can also see the marks of both the feet of Sumandar, Megharatha and Dhanadatta kevalī. All the three of them had attained their liberation here. There are 1300 steps to climb this mountain.

Udayagiri, the third mountain is the best and most beautiful of all the five. You can reach the top of this mountain by climbing about 786 steps. About 50 years back, an ancient temple in ruins was excavated on this mountain. The idols of this temple now grace the Lāl Mandir situated at the foothill. The fourth mountain called Swarnagirī is also known as Arunagiri or Śramaṇa Girī. The fifth one is called Vaibhāra Girī. 565 steps lead to the top of this mountain. There is a cave named Sonbhandar on the way up. Many idols are carved on the walls of this cave. There are five temples on the top of this mountain. A 1200 years old temple with 24 rooms has been discovered here. Many idols grace this temple, but some of the altars are empty of idols. There is enough evidence that there were idols in them formerly. There is a reservoir of hot water at the foothill of Vaibhāragirī, which has been alluded to in the Jaina Āgamā, Bhagavatī Sūtra. Even to-day a spring of hot water is to be found here. It is believed that this water can cure skin-diseases and so thousands of people come to bathe here. A Jaina cultural Institute named Virāyatana has been started at the foot of these mountains under the inspiration of a Shthānakwāsī Saint - Upādhyāya Amara Muri. There are paintings based on the life of Bhagwān Mahāvīra on the walls of the building of the Institute, which are worth seeing.

Both Bhagwān Mahāvīra and Mahātīnā Buddha spent many a *cāturmās* here. Mahāvīra usually stayed in a park (*caitya*) called '*gunaśeela*' It is possible that '*guṇavā*' which is now situated at a distance of about three miles from *Nabadā* Rly. station was *guṇaśeela caitya* in the ancient times.

1.6 Pāvāpuri

Pāvāpuri is a miraculous sacred place of pilgrimage where Bhagwan Mahāvīra, the last Tīrtharikara, achieved his liberation. It is situated 11 km. to the south-east of Bihār-Sharif. It is a sacred place which was known as 'Apāpāpur' in ancient times. The literal meaning is 'free from sin'. There is a vast and beautiful lake called 'Padma Jarovara' at the spot where Lord Mahāvīra achieved his liberation. Originally, this lake occupied an area of 84 'bighās' of land, but now it only occupies an area of 2 furlongs x 2 furlongs. According to a hearsay, it was formally an even plane. Numerous gods and goddesses and men and women had come to remain present at this spot to mark this 'kalyāṇaka' or propitious event of the great Tīrtharikara's life and when the event took place, they were moved to such ecstacy of devotion that they put the dust of this place on their heads and although each took only a small pinch of dust, there were so many of them that it created this vast lake! In the middle of this lake is a Jaina temple of white marble which is known as 'Jalamandira'. It is imagined that this temple was built by a king, named Naridīvardhana' some 2000 to 2500 years ago. Because of his deep faith, Naridīvardhana laid the foundation of this temple with bricks of gold. Some years ago, when

this temple was being renovated, very large bricks were found to have been used in its construction which proves its antiquity. It seems that the marble slabs were plastered on the original construction in later times for the purpose of beautification. A lovely bridge of red stones has been made to reach the temple. At the sanctum sanctorum of the temple, there are three pairs of foot-marks, the middle ones are said to be of the Lord Mahāvīra's and on the left side are those of Gautama Swāmī, and on the right side are those of Sudharmā Swāmī. Around sancatum sactorum is running a corridor. There is a 'Samavasaraṇa Mandira' opposite the Jala Mandira (water-temple).

A fare isorGaṇīsed here from the 13th day of the dark fortnight of the lunar month of *kārtika* (November) upto the bright fortnight of *kārtika* to celebrate the day of Lord Mahāvīra's liberation. A chariot procession starts in the morning of the last day of the dark fortnight at 3.30 A.M. from the office building and goes upto the water temple. Here after the '*Poojan*' (worship), a sweet in the form of a '*laddu*', is offered at the feet of the idol of the Lord. There is enormus crowd at the time of this function.

1.7 Śravaŋbelgolā (Gommateśwara)

Śravaṇbelgolā, the land of penance of Jaina penancers, is situated in Hasan District of Kamāṭaka. It is at a distance of 140 km from Bangalore, 83 km. from Mysore and 52 km. from Hasan. It is at the base of two mountains named *Caridragirī* and *Vindhyagirī* on the banks of a lake. It is also referred to as the 'Jaina *Badrī*' or 'Jaina *Kāśī*' of South India. This is an ancient, beautiful and supremely samed place of pilgrimage. The inscriptions, the majestic and holy sacred temples, the ancient caves and the huge idols of this place are not only significant from the point of view of Jaina archeology, but also from that of Indian spirituality.

References are available to the effect that the last Śrutakevalī Bhadrābahu had performed his penance in this place. He had come to South India to give protection to the Jaina populace from a famine which lasted for twelve years. His foot-marks are impressed in Bhadrābahu *Gufā* (cave) where he performed his penance. Emperor Candragupta Maurya who had accompanied hun as a muni (monk) served him in this place. A temple and series of paintings have been made here in memory of Candragupta Maurya.

The word 'Śravaṇabelagolā' is made up of three words. 'Śramaṇa' means a Jaina muni, 'bela' means 'white' and 'gola' means a lake. Thus 'Śravanbelagolā' means the 'white lake of Jaina sādhus'. It is this place where, under the leadership of Bhadrābahu Śwāmī, the Jaina muni's performed penances. Beyond doubt, this place is a very sacred place of penance. The tradition of Jaina acāryas who lived here is also renowned. The acāryas of this place had preached Jainism to great kings and initiated them into Jain-samgha. People from all strata and classes of society came here for undertaking spiritual sādhanā and the vow of penance unto death for enhancing their spiritual power. There are about 565 inscriptions of historical importance which stand as a testimony to the glory of the Jains. The importance of this monumental place gives a message of courage to every Jain.

This place is also known as Gommaţ tīrtha. There is a gigantine and unparalleled 58.8 feet tall image of Gomaţeśwar Bāhubalī. This glorious sight can be viewed from a distance of 15-20 km., which is an unparalleled monument in the whole world. As soon as a pilgrim would see this sight, he would begin to experience great peace. The word Gommaţeśwara is made up of Gommaţa + Iśwara. In Sanskṛt, Gommaţa is indicative of beauty and Iśwara denotes the very best. So Gommaţeśwara means the very best beautiful man. That is why Kāmadeva was known as Gommaţeśwara in the beginning. This idol was ordered and established by Cāmundarāya, the Minister and the General of the Ganga king, under the guidence of Ācārya Nemicandra, who was a great master of religious doctrine. Cāmundarāya was the Minister of Kamāṭaka, and in view of his virtues and deeds of valour, he was honoured with titles like 'Mahābalādhipati (Lord of great strength), 'Samaradhurandhara' (Great in battle), Satya Yudhiṣṭhira (Truthful like Yudhiṣṭhira) etc. His pet name was Gommaţa (lit. it means beautiful) Ācārya Nemichandra, the great master of doctrine, has referred to him as

Gommața and has treatise 'panc-sangraha' (fivefold collection) was named 'Gommațasāra'. Possibly for this reason, the idol created by his order is also named 'Gommațeśwara', after him. This idol faces the north and is in the posture of meditation. It always becomes the centre of attraction for tourists. It can easily be recognised as the eighth wonder of the world. It is a monolith. It has small ringlets of hair on the head, big ears, broad chest, very long and big arms hanging down. The eyes, lips, chin, eye-brows-every limb and organ is incomparably graceful and beautiful. The image radiates peace. This idol is anointed once in every twelve years. It is called 'Mastakābhiṣeka'. The multitudes that gather here from far and wide on this occassion prove the greatness of this wonderful place of pilgrimage.

1.8 Mount $\bar{A}bu$

The lovely hills of Mount $\bar{A}bu$ are situated in the Sirohi District of South Rajasthāna. $\bar{A}bu$ Road Rly. station is at a distance of 186 km. from Ahmedabad on the Delhi-Ahemdabada railway line. Its ancient name is Arbud. Mount Abu is 28 km. away from Abu Road Rly. Station and is 600 meters above the sea-level. Mt. Ābu is a part of the south-western range of Arāvalī Mountains. It is surrounded on all sides by huge rocks of wild and strange shapes. Its great natural beauty and the fact that it is a place of pilgrimage for both Hindus and Jains has probably prompted the Rājasthāna to give it a place of pride on its list of touris; spots of the state. The only mountain-resort of Rājasthāna, Mt. Ābu is well known because of its world-famous Dilwārā Jaina temples. There are five of these temples, two of which called Loon Vasahi and Virnal Vasahi are most fascinating for their fine and artistic carvings. The carvings on the walls, pillars and ceilings of these temples are fascinatingly beautiful. There is a temple of Bhagwan R sabhadeva in Vimal Vasahi. It was built in 1032 A.D. at the cost of Rs. 1853 lakhs by the king of Solanki Dynasty and his minister Vimalsah. This cluster contains 52 temple-lets. In Loon Vasahi, there is the temple of Bhagwan Neminatha, which was built by two brothers named Vastupala and Tejpāla in 1232 A.D. at a cost of Rs. 1253 lakhs. It is said that they encouraged the stone/carvers by paying them as much silver as the weight of stone that fell out upon carving. The carvers were enthused to put life in their carving and till to-day these carvings stand as excellent examples of the art of our stone-carvers. There are 48 mini-temples in this cluster. Over and above these, the temples of R sabhadeva, Pārśvanātha and Mahāvīra Swāmī are also worth-seeing. The Bhagwān Kunthunātha Temple of the Digambar Jaina Sect on the left of these temples is also famous among the faithful believers.

There is a Jaina temple at Acalagarh on a hillock which is situated at a distance of 6 km. from Dilwara. Bus-service is available to travel to this place and back upto the temple of $Mah\bar{a}$ deva. From thereon one has to climb on foot. Amongst the Jaina temples, the one of $Sr\bar{u}mukha$ is very famous. There are 14 idols of Bhagwan Ādinātha here, which are made of an alloy of eight metals which totally weigh 1444 monds. They are believed to be more than 500 years old. Any tourist to Mt. Abu invariably visits the Dilwara temples and having seen them, praises them unreservedly.

1.9 Ragakapur

Raņakapura is a village in the midst of the *Arāvallī* mountain range. It is in the *Pālī* district of *Rajāsthan*. It is an art-pilgrimage situated at a distance of 22 km. from *Jhālanā* Rly. station and 10 km. from *Sādari* by train and 96 km. from Udayapura by road.

It is believed that Dharanaśāha of *Naridī*pura village was a great devotee of the *Jineśwara*. One night, he saw "Nalini Gulma", a flying vehicle, in his dream. He was so impressed by its shape that he vowed to have a Jaina temple of the same shape. Sculptiers were invited from far and wide. They made some sketches to start with. From these, the sketch of a sculptor named *Depāka* from Mundara village was selected. On the basis of this sketch, the foundation of this temple was laid in V.S. 1495 and the construction was completed in 1498. It costed about a crore of rupees. The placing of the idol of Ādinātha is such that no matter where a person stands and from whatever angle he looks, he can see the idol. Its stone sculpture is unique and fascinating.

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There is a story current about this Dharanaśāha who had promoted to build this temple. One day Dharanaśāha went to see how the work of construction was going on. He saw a small lamp burning. A fly had fallen into the oil of the lamp. Dharanaśāha quickly picked up the fly and put it on his shoe so that the oil on the body of the fly would transfer itself on his shoe. The workmen who saw him in this act were stunned. A doubt entered their minds as to how such a miserly person will ever complete the construction of such a huge temple? For testing him, they told him that they will have to use all metals for laying the foundation of the temple, because such a huge edifice cannot stand on the foundation of stones alone. Dharanaśāha stunned them again by acquiring all metals for the construction. Dharanaśāha firmly believed that not a copper coin should be wasted without purpose, but no expense should be spared on essentials. This temple which stands on 1444 pillars and has 24 huge halls is an astonishing example of architecture. The wonderful thing is that though there are so many pillars, no two of them are the same and inspite of there being so many pillars, the view of the idol is not obstructed by any of them!

1.10 Śrī Mahāvīrajī

The extraordinary and world-renowned place of pilgrimage known as $Sr\bar{\imath}$ Mahāvīrajī is situated in 'Caridanpura Grāma'. Caridanpura grāma itself is now known as Śrī Mahāvīrajī. Śri Mahāvīrajī Rly. Station is on the Western Railway between Bharatapura and Gangāpura stations and is about 7 km. away form the temple. It falls in Savāi-Mādhopura District and is 175 km. away from Jaipur and 170 km. from Agrā.

This pilgrimage centre has a wide popularity. Almost throughout the year, pilgrims arrive here in great numbers. It is learnt from the people that one Śrī Amaracańda Vimala made this temple built around the 17th century A.D. The temple stands in the middle of a market. It is a grand edifice beautified with three tall pinnacles reaching for the skies. There are several altars in the temple. In the middle of one of the altars in the hind part of the temple is a captivating idol of Lord Mahāvīra sitting in the lotus-posture. It is made of wheat-coloured stone. This idol was found buried under a nearby mound. A cow belonging to a certain cowherd used to go there and drop all its milk by itself at this spot. Getting hint in a dream he saw one night, he dug out this noble and charming idol. Under a canopy where this idol was found, the spot is graced by ancient foot-prints, and milk is offered there still.

There is another temple near the main temple which is graced by a white idol of Lord Mahāvīra, which is known as 'Nandīśwara'. There is another temple to the east of the main temple. This is Pārśwanātha's temple. The glasswork of this temple is worth-seeing. Pilgrims find great peace here. At a little distance from this temple is a river. On the east-in bank of this river is a town called Śānti Nagar.

In this town, there is a huge temple which is graced by a meter tall idol of Šāntināthajī, the 16th Tīrthankara. The idols of all 24 Tīrthankarās are also worth-seeing. There is a 'Sahasrāra-kūṭa caityālaya' (a temple having 1000 pe-ks) here. There is another caityālaya (temple) opposite this temple. A public fare is arranged here on occassion of '' Mahāvīra Jayantī'' (birth-anniversary) ever since the establishment of this centre. It is considered among the great-fares of Rājasthāna. It is very difficult to make arrangements for the pilgrims who attend this fare held between caitra śukla 13th to vaiśakha Kṛṣṇa 2nd. On the day of Mahāvīra nirvāṇotsava (Dipavali), Pilgrims flock here in great number to offer 'Laddus' at the feat of the Lord's idol. Besides Jains, people of other communities like Meenā, Gujar, Jatava etc. gather there for Darśana of the Lord.

1.11 RşabhaDevajī

There is a small town called *Dhulerā* at the south end of *Rājasthāna* at a distance of 64 Kms. from Udaipur, and coverd by the hills. Nearby flows a river named Koyad. There is a huge temple of Rṣabhadeva here; it has spread out in an area of 1 Km. The temple is made of solid stones. It is believed that originally this

temple was built with bricks, but it broke down. Then, in the era 14th or 15th century A.D., this temple of stones was re-built. Animposing black idol of R sabhadeva sitting in the lotus posture graces sanctum-sanctorum of the temple. It is three and a half feet in height. The use of 'keśar' (Saffron) is in much vogue in the worship of this idol and therefore, it is also called *Kesariyāji* or *Kesariyānāthajī*. This idol is considered to be very miraculous. Therefore, Jains and non-Jains including Bheels and other communities flock here in thousands to propitiate the deity. The Bheels call this idol 'Kālāji' (or the black God). They have such deep belief and faith in 'Kālāji' that an oath in his name is considered to be the ultimate.

OUESTIONNAIRE

1.

What is the meaing of 'tīrth'? Discuss in detail the important places of Jaina pilgrimage.

Short-answer questions.

(a) Establish the importance of pilgrim centres in Jaina culture.

(b) Write short notes on three of the main pilgrim-places of Rājasthān.

Objective questions

1) With which Tīrthankara Campāpuri is related?

2) Where is the pilgrim-place call Śatruniav situated?

2.

3.

- Where is the pilgrim-place call Satrunjay situated? 2)
- Who got the Bhagwan Neminatha's temple of Delvara built? 3)
- Where is the Bhadrābāhū's cave situated? 4)
- How many pillars are there in Ranakpur temple? 5)
- Which place of pilgrimage is famous by the name of Kesariānāthaji? 6)
- 7) Which place of pilgrimage is surrounded by five mountains?
- With which place of pilgrimage is Padma Sarovar Associated? 8)
- From which place of pilgrimage did twenty tārtharkarās attain liberation?
- 10) Which place of pil grimage has been called auspicious in 'Dhavalā Tīkā'?

Recommended Books

- Vividh Tī thankalp- Śrī Jin Prabha Sūrī.
 - Published by :- Jaina śwetāmber Nākoda Pārśwanātha Tīrth.
- 2) Acārya Bhikhsu Smrti Granth, Second Part, Essay on Ancient Jain-Tirth, Published by Jaina Shwetamber Terāpanthī Mahāsabhā by Pundit Kalyān Vijay Gaṇi.
- Jaina Tirth Darsan, Published by :- Lalchand & Sons, 16 Dariya Ganj, New Delhi.
- Jaina Darśan aur SansKriti by Muni Mahendra Kumār and Bhavarlal Joshi,

Published by :- Jaina Viśwa Bhāratī, Ladnun.

Compiled by : Dr. Anand Prakas Tripathī

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LESSON-9 & 10

JAIN RITUALS (KARMAKĀŅDA) & FESTIVALS (PARVA)

(A) JAINA RITUALS

1.0 Purpose of Rituals

Jainism accepts in principle that all fundamental substances have separate and individual existence and for this reason it is also accepted that each fundamental substance has its own real identity. Therefore, Jainism also accepts that each substance in its own form of four facets viz. own substance, space, time and mode, has its independence. Therefore, from the transcendental point of view, each thing exists without dependance on other things. The acaryas have therefore clearly expounded that from a purely transcendental point of view, each and every soul is pure, enlightened, eternal, untainted, not amenable to any transformation, and owner of its absolute independent four-faceted form. All living beings are equal - none is bigger or smaller than other. Thus, speaking from a purely transcendental point of view, there is no such relation existing as worshipped and worshipper, because the worshipped and worshipper can exist only when one soul is a master and the other one is a servant. However, from the empirical point of view, many inequalities or disparities are observed between one living-being and another one, arising out of their karma. A 'Jīva' (i.e. a living being) bound by karma is under bondage; on the other hand, a jīva without the bondage of karma is free. The siddha is free form karma, while the worldly soul is bound by karma. Thus a jiva bound in the worldly life takes recourse to many such rituals as to achieve the ideal qualities of those who have reached God-hood. During his daily routine a 'śrāvaka' (a follower of Jainism) gives a pride of place to the formal worship of paramatma. Ācārya Jinasen has written:

"The glorification of merit-giving and ideal virtues is called 'stuti' (eulogy). A noble and pious soul inclined towards salvation and ideal virtues is 'stota' (worshipper), The soul which has eliminated his 'karma' and with great effort achieved eternal perfection 'is the paramātmā', such one is the supreme soul and he is 'stutya' (worthy of worship). The ultimate result of 'stuti' or worship is the bliss of beatitude.'

2.2 Ritual of Obeisance (Kriti-karma) and Worship of Adorables (Devapūjā)

Paying obeisance through the prescribed ritual (*kriti-karma*) is amongst the most essential acts of both a house - holder or a lay follower and an ascetic (one who has renounced householder's life). A monk is expected to remain free from worldly motives, yet inadvertently his mind may be attracted by worldly acquisition, credit or fame or aspiration of being worshipped. To avoid any such fault or any other lapse that may be committed while coming or going or accepting food or to cleanse them, the monk performs the ritual of *kriti-karma*. A house holder's daily routine is such that there is always the liability of committing some lapse, and therefore, he is advised to practise '*kriti-karma*'. In the '*Mūlācāra*', a treatise on conduct, four synonyms of *kriti-karna* have been given - (1) *kriti-Karma*, (2) *citi-karma*, (3) *poojā-karma* and (4) Vinay-*karma*. The detailed explanation of these four is given there:

(1) Kriti-karma

The meaning based on its etymology is as follows: by performing mental act of purification of inner consciousness, vocal act of pronouncing syllables of mantra, and physical act in the form of bowing down etc. The eight types of *karma* such as *Jhānāvarana* (Knowledge-obscuring), etc. are annihilated (lit. *krityate* means chidyate), and therefore it is called *kriti-karma*.

(2) citi-karma

It causes to pile up (lit. cinoti) punya (meritorious) karma, and so it is called citi-karma

(3) Pūjā-karma

It includes the worship $(p\bar{u}j\bar{a})$ of the twenty-four ' $T\bar{v}tha\dot{n}kar\bar{a}s$ ' as well as the pancaparamesti (the five types of noble souls). On account of this, it is known as $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}-karma$ (worship-ritual).

(4) Vinay-karma

It embellishes 'Vinaya' (humbleness or modesty) and for that reason it is known as 'Vinay-karma'. Here the etymology of 'Vinay' is given as vineeyate nirakriyate i.e. that which removes (the karma). This means that it results in the destruction of karma through its netural realisation (or rise) or premature rise brought about for its annihilation. This means that kriti-karma is the cause of destruction of karma on one hand, and that of collection of auspicious or meritorious karma on the other. Modesty being the root of virtue, both the monks and lay-followers, giving up the negligence, should perform it properly according to the prescribed methodology.

2.3 'Kriti-karma' for Lay-followers

In the explanation of *kriti-karma* given in *Moolācāra*, *vinaya* (modesty) has been classified into five types: (1) *Lokānuvratti kinaya* (modesty as formality), (2) *Artha-vinaya* (modesty for monetory gain) (3) *karma-vinaya* (modesty for sex-actinity), (4) *Bhava-vinaya* (modesty due to fear), (5) *mokṣa-vinaya* (modesty for soustion)

Lokānuvratti-vinay is further divided into two types: one which is observed in respecting and welcoming every one according to the occassion, and the other is 'vinaya' observed in the worship of adorables. Here, it has been said that the worship of adorablas should be performed according to one's resources. This clearly shows that a householder should use materials like rice, etc. while performing kriti-karma. Ācārya VasuNaridī has thrown light on what kind of material might be used. He states that whatever are materials like perfumes, flowers, incense etc.. used for the worship of Lord Tirthakanra should be lifeless and without any kind of blemish.

2.4 Types of Worship (*Pūjā*)

Yāga, Yajña, Kratu, Saparya, adhwara, Mukha, and Maha are various synonyms of the term pūjā or worship. Mahāpurāṇa has classified vūjā as under -

This means - "worship is classified into four types:

1) Sadārcanā (Nityamaha)

2) Caturmukha (Sarvatobhadra)

3) Kalpdruma 🔣

4) Astāhnika.

Over and above these, there is one $Aindradhvaja\ Mah\bar{a}$ - $Yaj\hat{n}a$ which is performed by Indra - the king of gods and some other kinds of $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, all of which full under the above four types. Although actually worship is nothing but spiritual worship $(bh\bar{a}va\ p\bar{u}j\bar{a})$ which comprises the respectful welcome, honour, humble and modest behaviour and spirit of dedication, yet different perspectives and standpoints give rise to different forms and methods of worship viz. $n\bar{a}m$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ - worship as nomenclature, $sth\bar{a}pan\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ - worship of an image, dravya- $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ - formalistic worship, ksetra- $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ - worship related with place, $k\bar{a}l$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ or worship related with time, $Bh\bar{a}va$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ - spiritual worship with inner feeling. The worship as prescribed by tradition is of two types - $(1)bh\bar{a}va$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ and (2)dravya- $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, $bh\bar{a}va$ - $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is normally to be offered only by Jaina monks or learned and noble lay followers of Jainism. According to some idol - worshippers, the common lay followers of Jainism who are still attached to worldly life must offer only dravya- $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ for which they have to first prepare certain materials. It may be noted here that all sects of Jainism do not believe in dravya- $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$.

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2.5 The Form of Eight Kinds of Materials.

In the formalities of the worship of the Jina (in the sects believing in $dravya-p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$) there are prescribed eight kinds of materials for destroying eight types of karma. These eight materials should be arranged in one large dish systematically. Thus:-

- 1. Water: Clean water should be filled in the type of utensil which is allowed.
- 2. Sandal Wood: Paste of sandal wood and saffron should be mixed in clean water and filled in another container.
 - 3. Akṣat: Unblemished white rice should be washed and kept in a big dish or plate.
- 4. *Puṣpa* (Flowers): White and well-washed rice should be coloured with sandal-wood and saffron, and then kept in the platter.
 - 5. Naivedya: Well-washed pieces of coconut or the same dipped in sugar-syrup should be kept ready.
- 6. Deep (Lamp): Pieces of coconut coloured with a saffron and sandalwood or a lighted lamp of 'ghee' and camphor should be put in the platter.
- 7. Dhoop (Incense): A mixture of sandalwood dust and powder of incense or the same mixed with rice (akṣat), if the former is found insufficient should be kept ready.
- 8. Fala (Fruits): Almonds, cloves, cardamom, pepper, lotus-seeds and such other dry-fruits should be washed and put in the platter.

3.0 Mahārghya (The great thing to be offered)

The collection of these eight materials in a platter takes the form of 'mahārghya' or great offering.

The description of how to perform $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ or worship with the above mentioned eight materials is given in various sacred texts.

3.1 Pājā-vidhi(Ceremony of Worship.)

Ācārya Somadeva in his Yaśastilaka Campu writes -

The worship of God is of six types 'prastāvanā', 'purākarma', 'sthāpanā', 'sannidhī āpanā', 'pūjā' and 'pūjāfala'. Explaining these six types facts he writes: (1) To perform the anointing ceremony while praising the Jinendradeva as the beginning is known as 'prastāvanā'. (2) To put four pitchers fill with water on the four corners of the pedestal is called 'purākarma'. (3) To establish JinendraDeva ceremonially on the pedestal is known as 'sthāpanā karma'. (4) To believe that this is truly 'Jinendradeva', this pedestal is really the sacred mountain known as 'Meru'. These pitchers are filled with the water of 'kṣirodadhi' (a mythical sacred ocean), and 1 who am now about to perform this 'pūjā' am 'Indra' (the king of the Gods) is a belief called sannidhī āpanā. (5) To perform worship after ceremonial anointing is called 'pūjā' and (6) to pray, for the good of all is named 'pūjāfala'.

Over and above this regular worship, there are other forms of $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ as stated above. They are explained as below:

3.2' Caturmukha-pūjā'

To worship the Jina by standing on all his four sides like crowned kings is called 'caturmukh-pūjā'. It is also called 'sarvatobhadra.'

3.3'Kalpadruma-pūjā'

This $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is performed by kings. In this type of $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, the king gives away whatever a person asks for ('kimichhak-daan'). In this worship, jewels etc. are given away to fulfill the wishes of the person asking for it. This $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is also known as the $yaj\bar{n}a$ of kalpadruma.

3.4 Aşţāhnikā-pūjā

This worship is performed three times in a year. The 'gods' perform this ' $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ ' with great devotion. The Devas (gods) born in the Indian months named $\bar{a}s\bar{a}dha$ (June), $k\bar{a}rtika$ (November) and ' $f\bar{a}lgun$ (February) go to Nandiśwar dv $\bar{t}pa$ - a certain sacred island to perform this $P\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. This is known as the eighth island. The 'Devas' (gods) carry flowers and fruits from their 'Nandanvan' (divine garden) and perform this $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ with great devotion. This $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is performed by all the four types of 'Devas' - the mansion, the forest, the ruminous and the empyrean. They devote their thoughts to worship and with complete concentration perform this $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ from the eight day of the bright fortnight to the full-moon day, for two 'praharas' (One prahara is one quearter of the day's length) in the first part of the forenoon, then the later part of the afternoon, then the first part of the right and finally the last part of the right. This is how they worship the sacred mountain of 'Meru'.

Human beings cannot go beyond the region of two and a half islands, not even the masters of knowledge nor saints who have achieved miraculous powers. Therefore, human beings perform this form of worship in this world only by creating *Naridīśwar dvipa* by their feelings during the three ashtahrika periods of the year.

3.5 Indradhva ja-pūjā

This $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ is performed by the gods of heavens. Indra, the king of gods, goes to an artificial or natural temple, performs $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ there and offers a banner. During this $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$, he worships the Jaina idols established on all the five 'Merus' as well as the Jaina idols established at 'Bakṣara' etc. He also worships those Jaina idols which exist in the thirteen islands called 'Rucāka Giri' etc. By en the $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ performed during the five 'kalyāṇakās' are included in this $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$. Description of the rituals of a 'kavana' (sacred sacrificial fire) to be performed after the availability of other rituals is also found. This is performed with a desire for world-peace.

(B) JAINA FESTIVALS (PARVA)

1.0 Introduction

There is an inseparable connection between the festivals and human society in Indian culture. From the very beginning, the Jaina thinkers have given guidance for religious activities in the context of social structure. The great importance given to the value of ahimsa in the Jaina ethics has tremendously influenced the social structure. In this way, the structure based on values helps in development of the individual in society. The days of parvas of religious festivals are an important facet of social order. One can easily evaluate the culture, civilization standard of living and the special features of any community, religion or society, by observing its festivals. Just as the body remains incomplete without any part of it, so also a society and the life remains incomplete without its festivals. Festivals, on one hand are the excellent occassions of self-development, while on the other they enhance the influence of the religious and moral values in the social pattern. There are two types of festivals - temporal and eternal. Those events which are related with an individual personality or happenings can be termed as temporal festivals e.g. Akṣaya Tritiyā, the five auspicious festivals related with the 24 Tīrtharikarās, Deepāvalī, Mahāvīra Jayarītī, Rṣabha Jayarītī, Rṣabha Nirvāṇotsava etc. The eternal 'parvās' or festivals are believed to be in vogue from time immemorial e.g., Aṣṭāhnīkā parva, Ratnatraya parva, Paryuṣana, Sarīvatsarī and Daśa-laxaṇa parva.

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2.0 Meaning of Parva

The word 'parva' means a festival related with an event or happenning. parva gives us a signal to shift from routine chores of life to something higher or of greater importance. Such shift gives us a new direction, new awakening, and new inspiration. In other words, parva is a guiding force, it acts like a mariner's compass. It is a symbol of change and sometimes even becomes a strong instrumental to take an altogether a new turn in life. The general message of the 'Jaina Festival' is 'we have repeatedly journeyed infinite times in the labyrinth of 84 lakhs life-forms (yonis); now it is the time to turn away from it, it is time to give up the path of pervesion and straight away march on the royal road of equanimity. Life so far was on the wrong track, moving in circles like a bullock in a oil press; the soul went round and round in this material world, it had no motivation to achieve the incomparable happiness of liberation; now the motivation has changed; the course of life has taken a turn, it has moved away from its previous position, and it has to tread in the innovative direction of spiritual awakening.' This moment of perfection is 'parva.'

Really speaking, the whole theme of the (spiritual) 'parva' is not with the material would but with the soul. To know the true form of soul, to understand it and experience it makes the 'par a' meaningful. It requires gradual practice to attain perfection in this matter. Just as a person reading a book reads one line and then goes on to the other till he finishes the page and turns to the next page and reading progressively finishes the entire book someday, so also the gradual practice performed leads to perfection. Just as climbing a ladder step by step leads us to the ultimate resting place, So also the various discipline and penances practised during the 'parva' lead us to the ultimate goal of self-realisation.

3.0 The Special Feature of Jaina Parvās

The Jaina (spiritual) *parvās* have many special features. Generally, the *parvas* are meant for new enthusiasm, joy and livelines in life. Man resorts to various things to experience and express his joy, such as participation in various games and entertainments, eating sweets and tasty foods, touring lovely places, viewing the objects of beauty and natural scenes, narration of tales or stories, orGaṇīsing relevent dramas and plays, arranging competitions etc. By and large, these activities are related to material world. Jainism is a spiritual religion and all its attempts are to lead towards beatitude and spiritual progress. Therefore, the Jaina *parvās* have their own special message which may be summerised as follows:

3.1 Self-Purification

Self-purification is the prime speciality of Jaina 'parvās'. For this reason, one must get rid of 'kaṣāyās' (passions) like anger, honour, illusion and greed, adopt equanimity, faith, wisdom, and good conduct in one's life. One can cleanse one's self by means of non-aggression, truth, non-stealing, celebacy and non-possession. One should put into practice the theory of syādvād - relativity in speech, the theory of anekant i.e. multy-faceted nature of truth in thought and non-aggression in behaviour. In the course of spiritual sādhanā, one should try to develop the noble virtues like forgiveness, gentleness etc. and to eliminate such vices as anger etc. For this, one should resort to vratās (vows), fasts, not eating more than once a day, sacred perception of the adorables, worship, devotion, spiritual study, listening to religious discourse, etc. It is by such means only that one can remove such blots on the soul like attachment and aversion and gradually increase one's equanimity.

3.2 Message of Righteousness

The religious *parvās* impart the message of good behaviour to all living creatures. The Jaina religion has prescribed the norms of assessment and the rules and regulation for every conduct and behaviour of both the householder as well as the monks. The message of righteousness given by the festivals is: 'Knowledge without conduct (i.e. practice) is futile. Unrestrained actions lead the mind astray. A person without morality can never acquire spiritual peace. Only a person who has restrained his body and mind leads a successful life.

3.3 Turnig Towards Nature of the Self

The root cause of man's miserable wanderings in the material-world is his lack of attention towards the nature of his self. A man who hankers after material objects in the false belief that they can yeild happiness to him is like the musk-deer which wanders through the forest in search of the source of fragrance, not realising that it is lying inside his own navel. Such a man is completely ignorant of the eternal bliss of the soul. The Jaina parvās inspire man to turn away from the outside objects and to introspect his own self.

3.4 Showing the Path of Detachment

The Jaina *parvas* are not occassions for eating, drinking, enjoying and entertainment. They withdraw a man's mind from material enjoyments and turn it towards detachment. The ideal of festivals is detachment. Most of these *parvās* fall on the eve of important dates connected with the detached saints. Just as the Lord *Tīrtharikarās* etc. freed themselves from attachment and aversion, and ultimately reached liberation, we also should detach ourselves from the material things, accept the path of detachment, and make continuous efforts to achieve liberation. This is the message of these '*parvās*'.

3.5 Preaching of 'Bhed-vigyāna' or the Science of Separation (of body from the soul)

All those who have achieved monkhood have done so by the help of *bheda-Vigyāna* or the realisation of separation of the body from the soul. The fettered beings in this world are in bondage because of the lack of such realisation. The mind of a person who in the heart of heart realises '*bhed-vigyāna*' achieves the coolness of sandal wood. The true nature of the self gets manifested and the perversion is destroyed, and a peaceful condition prevails deep inside in the consciousness. The realisation of the *bhed-vigyāna* is strengthened by observing '*parvās*' without ostentation and meditating on the true nature of the soul and futility of the material pleasures.

3.6 Victory over the Self

Lord Mahāvīra said that victory over one's own soul is greater than one over millions of unconquerable warriors. The Jaina *parvās* inspire us to win a victory over one's ownself (soul). Any man who has conquered his own self can achieve liberty by following the path of its original nature. The soul itself can be transformed into the liberated soul free from all restlessness, but first of all it has to conquer itself.

4.0 Eternal parvās

According to the Jaina tradition the eternal parvas observed are described thus.

4.1 Daś Lakşana & Paryuşana Parva

The Daślakṣana and the Paryuṣaṇa parvās are the most sacred parvās observed by the Jaina community. In the Digambar tradition, the Daślakṣana festivals comes round three times a year but the one which falls in the Indian calander's lunar month of bhādrapada is considered more important. In the Śvetāmbara tradition, the same is the month for the Paryuṣaṇa parva. These are considered to be the best days for observance of religious activities of penance etc.

The *Paryuṣaṇa parva'* is fundamentally associated with the everchanging wheel of time (*kāla-cakra*), which has no beginning. Thus, this great festival is closely associated with the time-cycle.

In the Jaina cosmogonical concept, the time-cycle in divided into two halves - ascending and descending. Each semi-cycle is sub-divided into six spokes ($\bar{a}r\bar{a}s$) when the third ara viz., the period of plenty-cumpenury, of the present descending semi-cycle was going to end after 1/8 palya (a time-period defined as a pit-measuring unit consisting of innumerable years), the era of enjoyment in the region of Bhārat was also near its end, as a result of which the era of action (profession for livelihood) was going to start. The brilliance of the

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(all-wish-fulfilling) trees (*kalpadruma*) was fading away. It was the evening of the full-moon day of the lunar month of āśaḍha (June), with which ended the 'bhoga-yuga' (era of entertainment). At that juncture of time, the humans show a unique natural scene at the horizons - there was setting of completely spherical red-coloured sun in the west and at the same time the rise of completely spherical full-moon in the east.

The whole mankind went into a state of partic at this strange natural scenery. The Kulkara or Manu Mahārāj (i.e. the chief of the then human society) explained the mystery of this phenomenon to people. This brought back solace to the mankind. The next day to this full-moon day was the first day of the dark fortnight of the Indian lunar month called 'śrāvaṇ'. This was the first day of the first week of the first fortnight of the first month of the first 'āyana' (summer solstice i.e. 16th July) of the first year of the first 'yuga' of the first century. It was on this day that the behaviour and culture of 'karma Yuga' (Era of professional livelihood) started.

Another version of this event is also available. It runs thus: At the end of 'avasarpinīkāla' (the descending time-cycle), a rain of fire falls upon the religions of 'Bharatakṣetra' and 'Airavat kṣetra' and intense destruction takes place between the eleventh day of the dark fortnight of the lunar month called 'jyeṣṭa' (June) and the full-moon day of the bright half of the month of 'āṣāḍa' (July). Most of the living beings are destroyed during this period. Only 72 couples would remain safe in the cave of Mt. 'Vijayardha'. After this begins the 'utsarpinī kāla' (the ascending time-cycle). At the start of this period, beginning from the first day of 'śravana' (July) and lasting upto the fourth day of the bright fortnight of the lunar month of 'phādrapada' (September) - during a period of 49 days, there will be rain of 'ghrita' (ghee, a product of butter), milk, curds, which would cool down the fire of destruction. With the cooling down of the earth, greenery vegetables, fruits and flowers would bloom. The human couples who had hidden themselves inside with caves - would come out one by one and inhabit the earth. Thus the universe would be recreated. The mankind started observing the 'Paryuṣaṇa' as a symbol of the happy days of creation.

4.2 A 'Parva' of Both traditions

This parva is observed with boundless enthusiasm by both the Śwetāmbar and Digambar factions of Jains. All the three subsections of the Śwetāmbar sect (i.e. Moorti Pūjak, Sthānakvāsī and Terāpanthī) celebrate Paryuṣaṇa 'parva' from the 12th or 13th day of the dark fortnight of 'bhādrapada' to the 4th or 5th day of the bright fortnight. These eight days are observed as 'aṣṭahnika'. On the other hand, the 'Digambar' Jains observe it from the fifth day of the bright fortnight of bhādrapada to anant cuturdaśī, the fourteenth day of bright fortnight. These ten days are observed as Daś-laxaṇa parva. Both the sections offer their own explanation concerning their beliefs. According the 'Śwetāmbar' tradition, the last eight days of destruction of the 'Duṣma-Duṣhmā' (the fifth penury spoke) age should be used to create a holy and religious atmosphere through penances, while the Digambar Jains hold the opinion that after the end of 'Duṣhma-Duṣhma' age, a holy and religious atmosphere should be created to begin a new-era. Realistically speaking, the goal of achieving purity and holiness for the happiness, prosperity and purity of mankind is what each sect is aiming at. Amongst the 'Śwetāmbar' sect, the 'Sthānakvāsīs' and 'Terāpanthīs' start the observance one day after the Moorti-Pujakas, that is from the thirteenth day of dark fortnight to the fifth day of the bright fortnight.

4.3 Nomenciature and Significance of The Mahāparva

The Jaina scriptures and works mention many names of these *parvās*, which show its prime importance:

- (1) *Parvarājā* (King of *parvā*s): It has more importance than other *parvā*s. It is an operator of time, goal and revolution.
 - (2) Mahā parva (The Great parvā): Extremely ancient and the most important among all the parvās.

- (3) Daśā-lakṣaṇa parva (The parva of Ten Characteristics): The ten principal virtues which are the characteristics of Dharma viz. forgiveness etc. for the benefit of the soul are observed during this parva.
- (4) Paryuṣaṇa parva (literal meaning of paryushana is to sojourn at one place in the monsoon for the monks): A 'parva' in which the passions (viz. anger, pride, conceit and greed) are ushana i.e.combusted and burnt through the religious activities of the body, mind and speech.
- (5) Paryupāsanā Parva: Wherein forgiveness,etc. are appropriately practised for self-purification (spiritual cleansing).
- (6) *Paryupāvas*: Wherein meditation is practised through body, mind and speech on the qualities of the soul or the spritual peace is achieved.
- (7) *Paryuṣamana*: Wherein by means of many sources of enlightenment, the passions are at and oned and peace is attained. Practice of self-study is used to achieve equanimity.
- (8) *Paryuṣaṇa parva*: In the *Apabhraṁśa* dialect, etymologically it means that it is a *parva* during which acts of attachment, aversion etc. are combusted (ushyante) i.e. burnt away thoroughly (*pari samantāt*)
- (9) Samvatsarī parva: The parva in which the sensuality and passion which have crept in the soul during the whole year are brought to an end by means of sāmvatsarīkā pratikromaņa.

Such words in vogue by themselves point to the greatness of this parva.

There is a difference in the ways of observance of the *parva* in both traditions (viz. śwetāmbar and digambara) but both have the common goal of self-purification. The life of the great spiritual hero (i.e. Lord Mahāvīra) is presented. In some sects, more importance is given to caitya-vandana, pratikramaṇa, etc. In all of them, however, all the lay - followers of Jainism observe rasis, pacification of anger, etc.

During the tendays of 'Daśa-lakṣana' parva, the tenchapters of 'TattvārthaSūtra' are self-studied by the Digambar Jains. The ten principle qualities of the soul viz. noble forgiveness, noble gentleness, noble strightforwardness, noble purity, noble truthfulness, noble self-discipline (self-control), noble penance, noble renunciation, noble non-possessiveness, and noble celibacy are given prime importance. A huge number of people undertake worshipping and washing in the temples.

All young and old lay followers observe vows and fasts with deep faith. Along with observance of 'sāmāyik', pratikramaṇa, 'svādhyōya', Sermons, caitya Vandana etc. special vows of the dashmī and ananatacaturdaśi are also performed. 'Ratnatraya vrata' (vow of three jewels, viz. knowledge, faith and conduct) is also performed between the thirteenth day and full-moon. Mostly every day, various rituals and ceremonies are performed in the temples. Some people perform worship through the entire month of bhādrapada which is known as 'Soiasa karana vrata ārādhanā' (performance of vow for sixteen reasons).

This parva is a festival of universal friendliness which developes peace and friendliness everywhere.

5.4 Aştāhnika Farva

In the Digambare tradition, Asjāhnika parva is celebrated with great funfare by all the followers of the Digambara sect, every year in the lunar months of kārtik, (November), fālgun (February) and āṣāḍha (June) during the bright fortnight from the eighth day to the full-moon day. As per the Jaina Cosmographical belief, Nandiśwar is the eighth consecutive island around the Mt. Meru. Its diameter is 16224 lakhs of 'yojanas'. There is a traditional belief that there are 5616 Jaina idols in 52 natural 'caityas'.

The *Kalpavāsī Indras* and other gods upto the 12th heaven, possessed of right faith go to '*Nandiśwara*' island and stay there for eight days and celebrate the '*Astāhnika parva*' with great spirit and devotion and earn

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thereby enormous merit. Humans, due to their limitation, can go only to the Jaina temples situated on the earth. They imagine (visualise mentally) the *Nandiśwara* island as well as the temples and the idols situated there, and worship them here with faith and devotion during the very days of 'Astāhnika', when the gods also go to Nandiśwara island. It is mostly during these days that people undertake the ritual of creation of Siddhacakra. Also the Śvetāmbara sect considers the creating of 'Siddhacakra' according to the prescribed instructions and worshipping it as the second-most important Parva, but they observe it only twice a year in the luner months of caitra (March) and āśauja (October). Another difference is that they observe it for nine days from the seventh day of the bright fortnight upto the full-moon day. During the days of Astāhnika parva, one should observe fasts, religious observance, self-control with greater zeal and contemplate of one's soul through the practice of renunciation and penance according to one's capacity.

6.0 Naimittika Parvās (parvas based on Oceassion)

Naimittika parvās are those which have become prevalent in the society due to the occurance of some special happening. Alternatively, the *kalyāṇaka* (auspicious days related with the life) of "Tīrtharikarās" is considered to be Naimittika 'parvās'. There are such five 'kalyāṇakas' (auspicious days) in the life of each 'Tīrtharikara' but it is not customary amongst society to observe all of them as 'parvās'. Mostly the birthday of Lord Rṣabhadev and his day of liberation, the day of attaining omniscience and the day of liberation of Lord Pārśvanātha and the days of birth and liberation of Lord Mahāvīra are observed as 'parvās'. We shall now describe the main 'Naimittika parvās'.

6.1 Bhagwan Mahāvīra's Jayaátī(Birth-day Celebrations)

The birthday of Bhagwān Mahāvīra is known as Mahāvīra Jayantī. He was born in a place called *Vaišālī* in the house of King Siddhārtha who was the ruler of the place (*Gaṇa-Nayaka*) on the 13th day of the bright fortnight of the month called 'caitra'. His birth as a *Tīrthankara* was the result of his ceaseless practice of religion in his post births. He was known as Vardhmāna, Vīra, Sanmati, Mahāvīra etc.

Ācārya Samantabhadra has described the *tīrtha* (i.e. the religious order) of the Lord Mahāvīra as a 'sarvodaya tirtha' (i.e. the tīrtha wherein lies the spiritual upliftment of all). Mahāvīra's preaching included the good of the society along with the good of the individual. His preaching was aimed at the good of all living beings. He preached the lofty principles like non-violence, non-possession and anekant (non-absolutism). By propounding these principles, he established the supremacy of equality in social relation. His preachings are fully beneficial for all even today. On the eve of Lord Mahāvīra's birth-day, programmes and public meetings including symposiums on the principles preached by Lord Mahāvīra and early morning processions with songs etc. are arranged every where.

6.2 Vīra Šāsan Jayaátī (First day of establishment of Lord Mahavīra 's order)

The first divine preaching of Lord Mahāvīra bloomed on the first day of the dark half of the month of 'śrāvaṇa' (July). Each of the preceding twenty-three Tīrtharikarās right from Lord Rṣabhadev upto Lord Pārśva had also established in the same way his own religious order or tīrtha in his time, after having achieved 'keval jñāna' omniscience and each of them had spread his own spiritual message and created his own religious system by steering the wheel of dharma. Thus, one after the other all Jinas had repeatedly showed the same path of liberation which is in fact the path of true and ultimate happiness. From the time one 'Tīrtharikara' has established his spiritual rule upto the time the next 'Tīrtharikara' starts spreading his message, the religious jurisdiction of the previous one continues to be accepted by the people. Accordingly, the rule of Bhagwan 'Pārśvanātha' (B.C. 877 to 777) prevailed from B.C. 846 to 557. After that, the rule of the Jñatraputru Vardhamāna Mahaveera spread.

Some sects of Jaina community celebrates the *pratipadā* (the first day) of the dark fortnight of the lunar

month of śrāvaṇa (july) with great enthusiasm as the day of the beginning of the Tīrtha of Bhagwān Mahāvīra whose preaching was universally beneficient.

6.3 Akşaya Tritiyā Parva

Every year the Aksaya Tritiyā parva is celebrated on the third day of the bright fortnight of the lunar month of 'vaiśākha' (April). It is a historical 'parva' of the Jains. On this day, the first 'Tīrthankara Bhagwān R sabhadev had accepted the 'pāraṇā' i.e. accepting the food, on completion of one year long fasting, at the hands of King Šreyānsa (who was the grand-son of Lord R sabha) of 'Hastināpura'. This 'Parva' started from this day as marking the day of his 'pāraṇā'. According to the Jaina tradition, Bhagvān 'R sabhadev' was the originator of human civilization. It was Bhagwan Reabhadev who taught to mankind how to perform three types of professional activities such as asi (lit. sword i.e. the profession of a ksatriya soldier), masi (lit. ink, i.e. the profession of vaisa i.e. a businessman) and kṛṣi (agriculture). When R sabha became detached to worldly pleasures and accepted renunciation, it was the ninth day of the dark fornight of caitra (March). After undertaking the spirtual sādhanā which included penances and meditation, along with observance of silence, he went out to beg the alms. At that time people knew nothing about the monastic discipline. Thereofore, when they had a glimpse of the Lord, they were overwhelmed with the emotion and devotion and started offering him their beautiful daughters, lovely clothes, priceless jewellery, elephants, horses, chariots, thrones etc. No one knew anything about the methodology of offering food as alms. Thus, he fasted for six months and remained practising meditation. Then again he came out to Hastinapur to beg alms. King Śreyańs: Kumar spontaneously got the jāti-smriti-jfiāna. He recalled his previous birth and came to know how to offer alms to the Jaina ascetic. He offered as alms 'iksurasa' (Sugar cane-juice) in proper manner to Bhagwan Rsabhadev. As the miraculous effect, the food in the kitchen of King 'Sreyānsa' became 'Akṣaya' (i.e. inexhaustible). That is why the day is known as 'Akṣaya Tritiyā parva'. The religious custom of offering alms began on that day. In the Digambar tradition, the people celebrate the parva by offering alms, undertaking worshipping, welcoming the guests, etc. In the Svetāmbara sect, people observes this 'parva' by performing varshi Topa one year long penance of 'fasting on alternate days'. The completion of this penance is observed ceremoniously. Some people go to places of the Jaina pilgrimage Like 'Satrurijay' to complete this celebration, while others like to complete it in the presence of their religious Ācāryās.

6.4 Śruta Pańcamī Parva

In the *Digambara* tradition, when there came a time when gradually the memory of *Ariga jñāna*, (the spripture in the form of inner corpus) which was passed on orally by a master to his disciples started to get lost, Ācārya Dharsena was meditating in a cave known as *Candra* came on Mt. *Girnār* in *Sauraṣṭra* (Gujrat). He knew a certain part of these 'Angas' and 'pūrvas' - (The earlier lore). He realised that this orally imparted knowledge will be completely lost after him. At that time, there was going to be an assembly by of Jaina monks in a place called Makimā Nagarī. He sent a massage to the monastic assembly to send two monks who can remember the scriptures. As a result, two monks named Puspadanta and Bhootabali were sent to acharya. 'Dharsena, who put them to test and then at an auspicious hour started teaching them. When he finished teaching them all that he knew, he bid them farewell and sent them on their way, because he knew that his life was drawing to its end. Both the disciples touched the feet of the master and departed from him. They stayed at Ankale Swara for the monsoon and when the monsoon was over, Puspadanta retired to a forest with 'Jinapālita' and composed the Sūtras (aphorisms). They contained the, matter of 20 topics in the 'Satprarupanā'. These were taught to Jinapālita. Then Jinapālita was sent over to his brother-disciple Ācārya Bhootabāli. Bhootabāli could understand that his brother-disciple was nearing the end of his life. He took the matter on metaphysics from Puspadanta's work and composed the scripture called 'Safkhandagama (the canonical text in six volumes), and wrote it in a book form. This great canonical text (in the form of scriptural knowledge) was then worshipped in the caturvidh sarigha (the four-fold religious order). Then he sent it back to Puspadanta through Jinapālita.

He also worshipped it in the *caturvidha-saṅgha*. This worship was performed on the fifth day of the bright fortnight of the lunar month of *jyeṣṭha* (June). From then on, this sacred day is celebrated as 'Śruta pancāmi parva'

6.5 Deepāvalī

The *parvā*'s described above are observed only by the Jains. However, there are some *parva*'s which are also observed even by the Hindus. Deepāvalī (or Divālī) may be mentioned as the most important of such parvas. This 'parva' is observed on the 'amāvasya' in the 15th day of the dark fornight or the new-moon day. of the month of kārtika (November). On this day neat and clean houses are all aglitter with the light of lamps lit everywhere. The goddess of wealth is worshipped in every house. This festival is observed for the last several centuries. But no one knows when and why did it start or who started it. Some people relate it to Rāma Caridraji's return to Ayodhyā. Some assert that it is suggestive of Emperor Aśoka's victory over all nations. But there is neither any mention of it in the Rāmāyana (the great epic) nor in Puranas etc. The Buddhists do not observe this festival at all. Now there remains only the Jaina sect. There is a text called *'Harivansa Purāṇa'* (783 AD) belonging to the Jains. It was written in shaka 705 i.e. 840th year of Vikrama Samvat calander. The following description of the liberation of Lord Mahāvīra is found in it. 'Lord Mahāvīra came to Pāvā Nagarī preaching his message on the way to all noble souls. Here he lived in a lovely garden and when there were three years, and eight and a half months left for the fourth spoke of the time-cycle to end, he attained liberation on the new-moon day of kārtika at the dawn by suspending the use of all mental, vocal and physical activities and having dissolved all his 'karmās'. All the four types of gods came down and worshipped him. They lighted the lamps. The sky of Pāvā Nagarī was bright with the light of these lamps. Ever since that day, people celebrated the Lord's day of liberation by lighting up the lamps.

Looking at the state of Jaina religion in these modern days, no one can believe that $Deep\bar{a}val\bar{t}$ is observed in our country to celebrate the day of liberation of Lord Mahavīra. But considering the relations of Mahāvīra with the famous royal families of those times to whom he was related by birth and the great respect in which he was held by them, such a happening is not unbelievable. It is stated in 'Samgam Sutta' of Majhimanikāya of the Buddhist scriptures that curida gave the news of the liberation of Lord Mahāvīra to the long-lived disciple of Bhagwān Buddha, named Ananda, he exclaimed. 'O Curida, this is a great-gift for the vision of Lord Buddha.' This incidence shows how great was the glory of Mahāvīra in those days.

Apart from this the traditional form of worship performed on the occasion of $Deep\bar{a}val\bar{\imath}$ also throws some light on it. There is no satisfactory answer to the question as to why there is worship of godess Laxmi (godess of wealth) on this day? On the other hand, it was at the same time as the liberation of the Lord Mahāvīra that his chief disciple Gautama Gaṇadhara achieved omniscience. Gautam Gaṇadhara was originally a Brāhmīn. Jainism has always considered liberation and knowledge to be true wealth and referred to these attributes as $mukti-laxm\bar{\imath}$ (Wealth of liberation) and $j\bar{n}\bar{a}na\ laxm\bar{\imath}$ (Wealth of knowledge). Therefore, it is possible that the original worship of spritual wealth later turned into worship of worldly wealth. Such a thing is often found to happen in 2 human society which is ruled by outward vision. A toy house of clay and some toys are also included along with laxmi (wealth) at the time of $p\bar{\imath}j\bar{a}$ (worship). Our elders used to say that this toyhouse is a reminder of the preaching place (Samavasarana) of Lord Mahāvīra or his disciple Gautama, and as not only numan-beings but also animals and birds used to attend such assemblies. The toys of these are also placed in the worship. Thus, our worship on $Deep\bar{a}val\bar{\imath}$ day is the worship of the Lord's liberation (wealth) and we put up those decorations which represent the Lord's preaching-assemblies.

In the Jaina sects of idol-worshippers, these is a tradition that on the day of *Deepāvalī*, a great festival is celebraled to commemorate the Lord's day of liberation and he is worshipped with offering (*naivedya*) of laddus (a kind of sweet). This kind of worship is performed only on this day which also explains the making of sweets in every house.

6.6 Saloono or Rakşā-bandhan.

Another festival which is commonly observed in Jaina and Hindus is called 'Saloono' or 'Rakṣā-Bandhan' (Tying a protective thread). Normally 'seemiya' (vermicelli) is prepared in the home on this day and Brāhmiṇas on this day tie a protective thread on the wrists of people and take alms from them. They recite the following 'Śloka' (couplet) at the time of this ceremony.

'I now tie you with the same thread with which King $B\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}$ who was the 'Indra' of the $D\bar{a}navas$ (Demons) was tied. Protect me and do not move away from this resolve.'

Along with this, there is another tradition associated with this festival amongst Hindus of North India. On each side of every Hindu house, a picture of a human-being is drawn which is known as 'saun'. First, food is offered to them and 'rākhī' (protective thread) is tied to them and then only the members of the household can take their food. We tried to find out about this festival from many learned people and others well-versed in ancient lore as to when and how this festival was started. But we could not get any information regarding these matters. The Jaina *Purāṇa*s narrate a story.

According to this mythological story, one muni, ViṣṇuKumāra, averted the trouble given by King *Bāli* to 700 Munis including Akampana on the day of śāvaṇa poornima i.e. the full moon day of the luner month of śāvaṇa (July).

Bāli's evil behaviour had created havoc all around. People had vowed that they would eat no food till the 'upasarga' of the sages was over and they would be given alms first. When the danger of the Muni's was over, people prepared a light dish of 'simiya' of milk. There were only seven hundred monks and they could only reach 700 houses. In the rest of the houses, thier images were made and food was offered to them to fulfill the vow. People tied protective threads on one another's wrists and swore to protect one another. It is in the memory of this act that this festival is celebrated unto this day. The paintings created on the walls of houses are known as 'saun'. This word seems to be a derivative of the word 'Śramaṇa'. The Jaina munis were known as 'Śramaṇa' in the old days. This is how the Jains observe the festival of 'Saloono' or 'Rakṣā-Bandhan' till today. On this day Viṣṇu Kumār and the seven hundred Munis are worshipped first, then the protective thread is tied to one another, then food is offered to the 'Saunas' painted on the wall. Afterwards, every one accepts food and gives charity to the poor and to the Brāhmiṇas. In Śvetāmbar Jains, this kind of celebration is not avialable.

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Write essay on one of the following:

Jaina methods of worthip - their special qualities and their classifications.

or

The common special features of Jaina festivals (parvas) describing any two of them.

Write short notes on :-

- (a) Is it possible to achieve worldly happiness through glorification of God, $p\bar{u}j\bar{a}$ (worship) or prayer?
- (b) Describe how 'Paryuṣaṇa' is a parva of self-purification?

Fill in the blanks.

- 1) Tīrtharikara Mahāvīra was born on.....
- 2) Bhagwān Mahāvīra gave his first sermon on......

- Śruta pańcamī parva is observed in......tradition. 3)
- Kalpakāl is divided into.....two parts. 4)
- Bhagwan R sabha took......for his first 'pāraṇā' (completing a fast) 5)
- Rakṣābandhana is.....'parva.' 6)
- 7) The fifth laksana of the Daśalaksana is.....
- Nandiśwara island is theisland. 8)

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Compiled by : Dr. Asok Kumār Jain

LESSON -11 (A)

ART OF IDOL MAKING (MOORTIKALĀ)

Reference to idol worshiping is found since very ancient time in Jaina religion. This is certified by the following inscription, that Jina-idols were being consecrated in fourth and fifth centuries BC during the rule of Narida dynasty. This inscription, which gives quotation of 'Jaināgama' (ancient Jaina scriptures) with reference to the idols of Jaina Tīrtharikara and 'yakṣa' (angels or demigods), was found in Hāthīgumfā caves, and was made by Kaliriga king Kharavel in second century BC. King Nanda from Kaliriga had abducted one such Jina-idol. And king Kharavel had brought it back after about two-three centuries. Several Jina-idols belonging to Kuṣān period are obtained from the excavation of Kankālī Tila near Mathurā. These are now housed in the museum of Mathurā and Lucknow. One headless Jina-idol, obtained from Lohānipura, is preserved in the museum of Patanā. It belongs to Maurya period because of its shinning polish. Jaina idols, more ancients than these, are not found any more in India. But the idols found from the excavations of Mohan-jo-dero and Harappā in Siridhughāti have changed the history of Indian art of idol making. These idols have proved and pushed back the tradition by thousand years. There is no definite conclusion about the culture of the Sindhūghati because till now the script of the extant inscriptions there, is not deciphered. But a comparative study much similarity between the said headless nude idol of Lohānipura and the headless nude idol obtained from Harappa ruins. And based upon the northeast traditions, the Harappa idol is totally different from Vaidika and Bauddha system of idol making; but is completely compatible to Jaina system. In Rgveda a prayer is made to Indra to keep away and to kill the nude gods or their followers from the ceremonial sacrifice. (Rgveda 7,21, 5 and 10, 99, 3). The manner in which this idol has similarity with 'khadagāsana' (a sitting posture for meditation), in the same manner several other postures for meditation are similar to Jaina idol in 'padmāsana' (a sitting posture for meditation). In one posture, elephant, bull, lion, deer, and other such wild animals are shown around the idol. From this it can be presumed to be an earlier idol of Pasupatinatha. Whatever it is, we can clearly see the earlier version of meditating idois of Jaina, Bauddha and Śaiva in this idol. In fact due to this type of postures, the meditation is much more related to Śramana tradition and not so much to Vaidika tradition. And Śramana tradition is much more arcient in Jaina religion than in Bauddha religion. The trident marked on the head of the idol is comparable with the trident that is found on the hand and feet of the very ancient Jaina-Tirthankara idols. A 'dharmacakra' (wheel of religion) is found marked on it; and particularly it is drawn on one of the festoon of Rant-gumfa. It is also noteworthy that a very ancient relationship of the Jaina religion is found with west India. References are found of protecting the Jaina religion and the monks in the time of distress by the 'asura' tribe, 'nāga' tribe, and 'yakṣa'. This is the same 'asura' tribe with whom the relationship of the civilization of Sindhughati is assumed.

2. Introduction to some idols

- (1) Idol of Ādinātha (B 4) of king Vāsudeo period of 'Samvatser' 84, is an idol in meditating posture of 'padmāsava'. Though the head and arms are broken, the scratched halo with marked border is very much safe. There exist a figure of calf on the chest and the marks of 'cakra' on the palms and soles. There is a 'dharmacakra' (wheel of religion) on one of the pillars of the seat. There are ten male-female worshiping it. Two of them are sitting on their knees in front of the 'dharmacakra' and the rest are standing. Some of them have flowers in their hands, while others are with folded hands. Their facial postures show the expression of reverence. It is very clearly stated in the inscription of this idol that it is the idol of Lord Arahanta R sabha.
 - (2) The head and the cobra hood over it of a beautiful idol (B62) of Lord Pārśvanātha are found complete

and safe. Over the hood are the signs of good omens like swastika, 'ratnapatra', 'triratna', 'purṇaghata', and 'meenyugala'. There are curly hairs on the head. The ears are slightly longer; the eyebrows meeting in sharp points; and the cheeks are plump.

- (3) The stone pillar (B 68) is 3 feet and 3 inches high, and around it there are four naked Jina-idols. The symbol of calf is on the chest of all the idols. Three of them are with halo, and one of them has longhair curls spread over the shoulder. The fourth idol has a cover of seven-hooded cobra over its head. Out of these idols the last two are clearly of Lord Ādinātha and Lord Pārśvanātha.
- (4) From the historical point of view, the pedestal of the pillar is noteworthy. Though its upper portion where Jina-idols were all around it is broken, the lower part with markings on feet is saved. On one side of the pedestal a 'dharmacakra' is engraved. Two men and two women are worshipping it and two children are standing with flower garlands in their hands. An inscription is also engraved on this stone pillar. According to this inscription, this is a donation given by Bhattidama a resident of Abhisara, after listening to the preaching of Ārya R shidāsa. According to Dr. Agrawal's opinion, this religious man should be a resident of the same Abhisara region of which the Greek writers have also made mention. This is proved to be the Hajara district in the westnorth part of Present City of Peśāvar. He might have come to Mathurā and accepted Jaina religion. But it is more probable that this person who was resident of Hajara could be a follower of Jaina religion from the beginning, and had come to Mathurā for pilgrimage. Then, there he could have got the 'sarvatobhadra' idol consecrated. The existence of Jaina religion in that westnorth region during the first century is not improbable.
- (5) There is one more noteworthy idol (2502), that of *Tīrthankara* Neminātha. On its right side there is an idol of 'nāgarāja' with four arms and seven cobra hoods. And because there is a symbol of a plough in its upper left hand, this is believed to be of Balarāma. On the left there is an idol of 'caturbhuja' (four hands) Viṣṇu. There is a mace in his upper right hand, and in the left hand there is a 'cakra' (a special weapon). There is an engraving of leaves of 'vetas' tree over the Tīr hankara idol. According to 'Samavāyānga Sūtra' the 'vetas' tree is the tree under which Neminātha obtained his salvation. According to Hindupurāṇa, Balarāma is believed to be 'avatāra' (another birth) of Śeśnāga. Several more idols of this type similarly marked with images of Balarāma and Vāsudeo are obtained, ('Jaina Enti. Part 2, page 91). There is one more similar idol (2488) wherein hooded 'nāga' with folded hands is standing on the right side of Tīrthankara. This is also believed to be an idol of Neminātha together with devotee Balarāma.

3.1 Jaina Idols of Kuṣāṇa period

We obtain abundant material for the study of historical Jaina idols, from those 47 collected idols in the museum of *Mathurā*. Dr. Vasudeo śaraṇa Agraval does a systematic introduction to this in the third part of the museum sinventory statement. Several inscriptions engraved on the seats of the idols are also obtained. From this the fixing of its time period becomes easy. There are mentions of, from 5th to 90th years, on the idols belonging to *Kuṣāṇa* period. It is assumed that, these years are of the 'Śaka Saṁvata'. In some of the inscriptions there are mentions of Kaniṣka, Huviṣka, and Vāsudeo, the kings of *Kuṣāṇa* dynasty. All the *Tūrthaṅkara* idols can be divided into two types, one, the standing idols, which are called 'kāyotsarga' or 'khaḍagāṣana' and the second, seating idols in 'padmāṣana'. All the idols are naked and in the meditation posture of 'nāṣāgra-dṛṣṭi' (both eyes looking towards the tip of the nose). Distinguishing marks such as bull etc of different *Tūrthaṅkara* are not found on them. But these are found on idols of later period. Mostly a sign of calf is found on the chest. And signs of 'dharmacakra' on palms, soles and thrones, and 'uṣnīya', and 'ooma' (hair between the eyebrows) are found onmany idols. Otherappendants like 'prabhāval' ('bhamandal' halo), 'camaravāhaka' (flap bearer) on both sides and signs of lions on both sides of the throne are also engraved. Some times these lions are shown as holding the throne. Thrones of some idols are shown in the

form of bloomed lotus flower. In some there is an umbrella engraved over the idol. And on one throne there is also an image of goddess *Ambikā* with a child in the lap. These seem to be probably the common characteristic of Jaina-idols of that period. Idols of only two *Tīrtharikara* are found with their own special characteristic. They are of Ādinātha, whose hairs are shown scattered behind below the shoulders, and over whose head there is a cover of seven-hooded cobra. Mention and description of long grown hairs of Ādinātha, during his penance period is found in many places in ancient Jaina literature. For example *Padampurān* written by Ravisenācārya (676 A.D.) stanza 3, 288, and 4, 5.

Similarly there is a history about the umbrella in the form of cobra hood above Pārśvanātha *Tīrtharikara*. A fine concise description of this is found in *Svayambhustotra* written by Samantabhadra in stanza 131 and 132. When Pārśvanātha was fully engrossed in meditation of his process of penance, his enemy of the previous birth, Kamathasur made efforts to distract him from his meditation by creating different types of disaster. He blew very strong wind, created very heavy rains, struck lightening from clouds, but Lord did not get distracted from the meditation. Dharnendra cobra who was much impressed by Lord's concentration and penance came there and protected him by covering him under his enormous expanded hood. We find this as a symbol of this occurrence in the cobra-hood sign of Pārśvanātha.

3.2 Jaina idols of Gupta period

After Kuṇāl period let us pay attention to Tīrthankara idols of Gupta period. This era begins from the 4th century AD. 37 idols of this period are introduced in the above referred inventory statement of Mathurā. museum. From this, the following specialties of this period are known. The common characteristics are the same, which were developed during the Kunāl period. But now some variations can be seen in the appendants. These are now found to be more beautiful. There is more decoration in the halo (B 1, B 6, etc). Even though the picture of 'dharmacakra' and its worshippers is the same at before, in some places deer are seen engraved besides them. This type of picturing of deer in Buddha idols is first time believed to be a symbol of religious sermon in 'Mṛgādava' of 'Sāranātha' of Lord Buddha. It is possible that the same style of decoration has found its place and acceptance here also. Later on we seem to accept the deer as a special symbol of Lord Santinatha. On the throne of one of such idol, on one side an image of the Kubera with his purse, and on other side an image of 'matrudevi Ambikā' with a child sitting on her left lap are seen. Above this, four images on each side on both the sides, sitting on lotus are shown. These are believed to be signs of eight planets namely, 'sūrya' (sun), 'candra' (moon), 'mangala' (mars), 'budha' (mercury), 'brihaspati' (Venus), 'śukra' (Jupiter), 'sani' (Saturn), and 'rāhu'. Based upon these decorations, this idol is believed to be of the bordering period between the ancient period and the middle period, because this style of idol making was developed during that period (B 65, B 66). One Jina dol with nine planets and eight doorkeepers was obtained under a tree in Salimanabad near Jabalpu in Madhya Pradesh. This is worshipped by the local people as Khairamai (see *Khandaharon ka vaibhava* p. 180). This type of another idol (1388) of the bordering period has on its throne lions on both sides with a fish couple in between having their mouth open and a precept hanging from it. Later the fish seems to become the symbol of Lord AraNatha. Till this time idol of Lord Adinatha was seen with long hair scattered over the shoulders. His symbol bull, and other different symbols of other Tirtharkara seem not to be very much in use till that time. But it could be inferred that the use had begun. In this context an idol of Neminātha found in *Vaibhāra* mountain in *Rājagiri* is noteworthy. In the center of its throne one male with 'dharmacakra' mounted on his back and images of conch shells on both sides are seen. The name of Candragupta is found in the broken inscription of the idol. On the basis of its script it is assumed to be of king Candragupta the second of Gupta dynasty. The idol of Pārśvanātha engraved in the cave of Udayagiri at the time of Gupta emperor Kumārgupta the first, in the year 106 of Gupta 'sāmvanta', is also worth giving attention. Unfortunately the idol is broken. Even then the cobra hood with its fearful teeth is very impressive, and it seems is ready to protect its master. Also a pillar found in a place called 'kahauon' in Utter Prade's with

inscription is also worth mentioning here. There are idols of Pārśvanātha and four other *Tīrtharikara* engraved on it. Several Jaina idols of this period are found from the fort near Gwalior, Besnagar, Butthi, Canderi and Devagarh and other places. Some of the idols from Deogarh have been mentioned with temples of that place. Abundant material for study of Jaina art of making idols during and after Gupta period exists in these idols.

By paying attention to the construction of two to four idols, the variety of styles of this place can be clarified. Observe the Jina-idol placed in the 'mandapa' of the 12th temple there. One can observe broad forehead, lips are stout and properly pressed, and the eyebrows raised. Here the expression of meditation and concentration is very much clear. But the expression of sensuous beauty and adomment are missing. Observe the big standing idol of Santinatha in the 'garbhagriha' of this temple. It is more eminent because of its artistic qualities. The decoration of halo and the beauty and gestures of the doorkeepers are in tune with the art of Gupta period, but even then the identity of the decoration with the ideal is not obtained. The center of attention of the looker is the idol, which with its serious and detached hard impression creates a feeling of reverence mixed with a we. Of totally different style from these two idols is the 'padmāsana' idol sitting in the 'garbhagriha' of the 15th temple. In this idol the virtues of beauty, grace, compassion etc are equally distinct as much as the expression of concentration and detachment. The enlightenment (knowledge), contemplation ('dhyāna'), and sentiment of welfare of the people radiate from every part of this idol. The type of decoration is also conducive. The halo is also fully decorated. The images of, doorkeeper on both the sides, the triple umbrella above, and the goddess *laxmi* with elephant, etc are also beautiful and attractive. These qualities are seen even more developed in the idol placed in 'deokul' of south room of 21st temple. Here the images and the decorations are so rich that their attraction to onlooker is not less than that of the main idol. Because of that the main idol has become only a part of the whole scene. This wealth of decorations is the speciality of the mid-Gupta period.

3.3 Tīrthańkara idol of middle period

From the bigness point of view, there is an 84 feet high standing idol engraved at the bottom of Culagiri Mountains near Badvani nagar in Madhya Pradeś. This is popular with the name of 'bāvanagaja'. On its one side a male 'yakṣa' (demi-god) and on its other side a female 'yakṣini' are also engraved. There is a mention of 'Samvat 1380' on 3-4 idols in two temples on the peak of Culagiri mountains. This proves the existence of this place of pilgrimage atleast since 14th century. Such Jina-idols are found in Digambar temples in mostly all parts of the country in which the following references are found. That these Jina-idols were consecrated by Śāha Jīvarāja Papadival in 'Samvata 1548 (1490 AD). And that the place of Bhaṭṭāraka JinaCaridra or Bhānucandra is Mudasa, and reference to the name of 'rājā' (king) or 'rāval' Śivasinhā. Mudasa is a town 5-6 miles away from Idar in west Rajasthan. There is a popular hearsay that sheth Jīvarāja Pāpadivāl had consecrated one-lakh idols and had distributed them everywhere for worshiping.

3.4 Idols made of metal

Till now we have discussed idols made of stones. Idols made of metal were also in use since very ancient time. There is an idol of Pārśvanātha made of bronze (alloy of copper and lead) in Prince of Wales museum in Mun bai. Unfortunately its pedestal is destroyed. And also it is not known from where it is found. The idol is in 'kāyotsarga' posture, and its right hand and the cobra hood are broken. But the curves of the cobra body are clearly seen from behind the feet upward, till the top. Its shape/figure is very much similar to headless idol of Lohānipur, and the headless red-stone idol of Harappā. According to expert's opinion this idol should be of Maurya period. And this can not be of period later than 100 B.C.

Second metal-idol of this type is that of Ādinātha *Tīrtharikara*. This was obtained from a place called *Causā* in *Āra* district of *Bihār*, and is now safe in *Patanā* museum. This is also in sitting posture and is similar in shape and figure to the above-referred idol of Pārśvanātha. On the basis of the shape of the organs, hairstyle and the decor of the halo it is assumed to be of Gupta period. Other idols obtained along this one are also in

Patanā museum. They manifest by their style of construction an intermediate series between Maurya and Gupta periods.

A clothed Jina-idol made of metal is found in a place called Vasantagarh in Sirohi district of *Rājputānā*. This is a standing idol of Rṣabhanātha, on which there is an inscription *Samvata* 744 (687 A.D). The idol is shown as wearing a 'dhoti'. The pleats of its 'dhoti' are specifically shown more on the left leg. Five metal idols were found in *Valabhī* which are possibly of some earlier period and are now safe in Prince of Wales Museum. These are also clothed idols. But here the display of 'dhoti' is not as sharp as it is seen in the idol of Vasantagarh. This type of display of 'dhoti' is also found in stone idols. One example of this, is a sitting idol of Pārśvanātha in Rohataka (Punjab). An idol of Ādinātha in Prince of Wales Museum, found from *Caharadi* (*Khāndeśa*), is a good example of metal idol of the 10th century.

Among such types of metal-idols, those idols, which are called 'jīvanta Swāmī' (live sage) are also worth mentioning. The following reference is found in Āavaśyakacūrni, Nišīthacūrni, and Vārīdeohindi'. A sandal wood idol of Lord Mahāvīra was made when, during his boyhood, he was doing his religious chores in his palace. This came into possession of king Udayan of Vitibhaya Pattan (Sindhu-Sanvīr). From there, king Pradyot of Ujjain took it away to his kingdom, leaving in its place a replica made of ordinary wood. He got it consecrated in Vidišā where it was worshipped for a long time. This literary narration obtained historical support from two 'jīvantswami' bronze idols found in Akota (near Vadodara, Gajarat) recently. There is an inscription on one of them in which it is called 'jīvant-sāmī-pratimā'. Also it is mentioned that it was given as donation by Nageśvarī 'śrāvikā' of Cāndrakula. From the script it is assumed that they are of the middle part of the sixth century. These idols are in 'kāyostarga' meditation postures. But the decoration on the body is appropriate for a prince. There is a tall crown on the head. Long hairs are spread over the shoulders below the crown. There are ornaments all over the body such as, necklace in the neck, earnings in the ears, wide bands on the arms, bangles on the wrists, and girdle on the waist. Expression of smile and grace radiates from the face. Influence of style of Gupta period and of later period is clearly seen in the style of manifestation of expression and decoration.

The usage of Jina-idols made of brass seems to have begun from 14th century. In some places very big heavy solid idols made of brass are consecrated. According to the inscription the brass idol of Ādinātha installed in 'Pitalahara' temple in Ābu is weighing 108 'mana' (about 1500 kgs.). This was consecrated in V. S. 1525. The idol with all its accessories is 8 feet tall. This was produced by Deva son of artisan Mandan of Mehasana (north Gujerat).

3. 5 Idols of Bāhubalī

Among the bronze idols, that idol of Bāhubalī, which was brought to Prince of Wales museum in Mumbai some years ago is especially noteworthy. Bāhubalī was son of the first *Tīrtharikara* R ṣabhadeo, and brother of Bharat 'Cakravartī'. He was given the kingdom of *Takṣaśilā*. Bhārat became a 'cakravartī' after his father renounced the world. He then wanted to compel his brother to accept his subjection. On this issue a war began between the brothers. And, when during the battle the victory of either side was doubtful, at that moment Bāhubalī got detached from all worldly possessions and relations. He renounced the world. He renounced all his wealth, the whole kingdom and land, keeping only one foot of land for him to stand upon. There in Potanpur, he did very harsh penance standing steady. His penance was so severe that molehills grew at his feet and vines and snakes encircled his body. A description of this severe penance of Bāhubalī is given in *Mahāpurāṇa* (36, 104-185) written by Jinasen. Ravišenacārya has described this in brief in his *Padamapurāṇ* (76-77). The description of the molehills and the vines encircling the body is so very vivid, that the reader feels that there was an idol of Bāhubalī with all these details in front of the author. By that time, that is before this was written, the idol of Bāhubalī was made in the *Bādāmī* cave. There can not be any surprise if

Raviśenācārya was acquainted with it. That idol of Bādāmī is seven and half feet tall and was made in the 7th century. Another idol is engraved in the south wall of Indrasabhā of Jaina-śilāmandira called 'Cote Kailās. The construction time of this cave is estimated to be around 8th century. The third idol is in the Šāntinātha temple of Deogarh (862 A.D.). The speciality of these idols is as follows. Together with the snakes and the creepers, scorpion, lizard, and such animals are also engraved as crawling on the idol. And one angel-couple is shown as removing these troublesome animals. But the idol situated in the mountains of Vindhyagiri of Śravaṇabelagola in Mysore State is much more large and famous than all these. This idol was consecrated by the chief minister Cāmuṅdarāi of Gang dynasty king Rājamāll in 10-11th century. This idol is 56 feet and 3 inches tall and can be seen on the mountain from far away. It is so very much beautiful because of the harmony of its limbs, delightful and serene facial expression, and elegance of winding creepers like 'Valmik' and 'Madhavi', that its equal can not be found anywhere. Imitating this idol, in 1432 A.D. in Karakal a 41feet and 6 inches tall, and in 1604 AD, in Venura a 35 feet tall, two rock idols were consecrated. Gradually, usage of this type of Bāhubalī idols came to north India also. Here since many days, idols of Bāhubalī have been consecrated in many Jaina temples.

But the bronze idol which has come to light now is estimated to be more ancient than all the above mentioned idols. Its construction period seems to be 7th century or even some years earlier than that. This idol is standing on a circular pedestal and is 20 inches tall. The creeper 'madhavi with its leaves clings around the feet and arms. The hair look combed backward and the locks of hair are spread on its back and shoulders. The eyebrows are drawn high and are shallow. The ears are drooping down and pierced. The nose is sharp and pointing downward. The cheeks and the chin are plump. The shape of the face is oval. The chest is smooth because of its width. The nipples are shown just as points. The hip portion is rounded. The legs are straight and knees are shown graphically. The arms come down from broad shoulders following the curves of the body. The palms are connected to thighs with bands through which the arms get support. The over all production of the figure of the idol is very beautiful. The grandeur of meditation and the spiritual splendor are very well exhibited on the face. Mr. Umākānt Śāha has compared the production of this idol with that of Bāhubalī idol found in Bādāmī cave and the idols of Bihol whose production period is 6th-7th century.

3. 6 Idols of Cakreśvar į Padmāvatī and other yakşini' (female demigods)

In the Jaina art of idol making, besides the Tirthankara, form and figure are given to other gods and goddesses. Among them the idols of 'yaksa' and 'yaksini' are also noteworthy. One 'yaksa' and one 'yaksini' are believed to be associates of each Tütharikara. The name of the associate 'yaksini, of the first Tütharikara is Cakreśvarī. One two and half feet tall rock idol of this goddess is there in Mathurā museum. This idol is sitted on a seat supported by an eagle. Its head and arms are damaged, but its halo is safe in the shape of a welldecorated bloomed lotus. It has ten arms. There is a 'cakra' in the hand. There are two female doorkeepers one on each side of the idol. The one on right has a flapper and the left one has a flower garland in her hand. All these three idols are somewhat damaged. Above the main idol is the sitting and meditating Jina-idol, on whose both sides are flying idols with garlands. This idol is also obtained from Kankālī Tilla. And Mr. Curindham believed it to be ten-armed goddess of Brāhmina tradition. This is not surprising. Cakreśvarī. idol in one temple on the bank of Laksmanasāgar in Vilahari town near Katani also in Jabalpur district of Madhya Pradesh, is being worshiped as Khairamai. But there is an image of Adinatha on the head of the idol that clearly proclaims it to be of Jaina tradition. Idols of Cakreśvarī are also found in temples of Deogarh. There are beautiful idols of 'Gomukha yakşa' (cow face god) and Cakreśvarī 'yakşi' on both sides of the gate of the temple of Adinātha known as 'Sāsan-vasti' on Caridragiri mountain of Sravaņabelgola (Mysore). According to the inscription this temple was built before Saka 1049 (1117 AD). Here in several other temples, idols of 'yakṣa-yakṣini' of various Tīrthankara are found (see 'Jaina Śilālekha Sangraha' part one). Among them three and half feet tall idols of Dharanendra yakşa and Padmāvati yakşi in Pāršvanātha temple called

Akkana-vasti' are especially noteworthy. The construction period of this temple according to its inscription is Saka1103 (1181 AD). This idol is there in Katale-vasti also. The idols of Padmāvati of later than this period and earlier than his period are found in plenty in Jaina temples. Among these, the idol in one of the caves of Khandagiri (Orissa) seems to be the most ancient. Idols of $N\bar{a}lard\bar{a}$ and Deogarh are of 7th and 8th century. Worshiping this goddess seem to have become especially popular since middle period.

3.7 Idol of Goddess A tabikā

The prevalence and the reputation of 'yakṣini' Ambikā of Neminātha is found to be more than any other 'yakṣa-yakṣini' of Tīrthankara. The most ancient and reputed idol of this goddess is in the corner temple named Ambādevī on the mountain Giranār (Oorjayanta). This is referred to by the name of 'Khacarayośit' (vidyadhari) by Samantabhadra in his 'Brihatsvayambhūstrotra (stanza 127, p339). Jinsen has also referred to this goddess in the form of a prayer in his Harivanśa-Purāṇa' (shaka 705).

One noteworthy stone idol of this goddess, which is 1 foot and 9 inches tall, is in Maihurā museum. Ambikā is sitting on a lotus throne fixed on a lion below a tree. The left leg is lifted up and the right one is on the ground. In the right hand there is a bouquet of flowers and the left hand is holding the child sitting on the left lap. The child is playing with the necklace hanging on the bosom. The lower body is clothed and the upper part is covered with a cloth over the breast stretched over the shoulders going up to the back. There is an elegant crown on the head behind which there is a lovely halo. In the neck there is a two-strand necklace, the bangles in both the hands, a waistband, and the anklets in the feet, are the ornaments on the idol. The child is nude but has put on ornaments like, necklace, armlets, armbands, and waistband. Another child is standing on the side of Ambikā. His right hand is on the right knee of Ambikā. On the other side of this standing child there is a small idol of Ganeśa, in whose left hand there is a 'modok' (a favourite sweet of Ganeśa). And his trunk is touching it. Exactly on the other side there is a sitting dol in whose right hand there is a bowl and in the left there is a purse of coins. From this it can be assumed to be idol of 'dhanād-kubera'. Both idols of kubera and Ganeśa have their oval halo.

On both sides of all these, there are idols with umbrellas. On the band below the seat, there are eight female dancers. Above, there is a flower canopy in the center of which, there is a Jina-idol sitting in meditation. On its both sides there are two idols with four arms standing on lotus in awry posture. The right idol has a plough and a pounder or a rammer in his hands. This makes it clear that it is an idol of $B\bar{a}la$ ram. And the left four armed idol has a 'cakra' and a conch shell in left hands and a 'padma' (lotus) and a mace in his right hands identifying it to be an idol of $V\bar{a}$ sudeo. Both have victory garland in the neck. Independent idols of Neminātha together with Balabhadra and $V\bar{a}$ sudeo are existing in $Mathur\bar{a}$ and Lukhnow museums. In the above-mentioned idol of Amb is a we find a fine equation of several gods and goddesses of Jaina and Vaidika traditions. Descriptive or liverary version of this we find in Jaina $Pur\bar{a}ns$.

Similar idols of Ambikā are found 'Navamuni' caves and Caves of 'Dhhanka' in Udayagiri-Khandagiri. Here the idols have only two hands, like it is in Gupta period idols of Mathurā. But in south in Jinakancī, Ambikā painted on the wall of a Jaina Matha is four-armed. She has a fetter and a prod in two hands and the other two hands are in 'Abhaya' and 'varada' postures. She is seated below a mango tree, with a child beside her. A two-armed standing idol of Ambikā in a Jain-temple in a place called Angadi in Mysore State is very beautiful. Its twisted body-figure is very artistic and harmonious. Idols of Ambikā in Deogarh temples and Vimal-Vasahi in Ābu are also worth seeing. Recently added (3382) to Mathurā museum is an idol of fore-middle period wherein the goddess is seated on a smooth throne in between two pillars. The right foot is on a lotus. She is holding the child in her lap with her two hands with utmost affectionate expression. The hairstyle, the necklace, and the shape of earnings are very pretty. A lion is sitting on the left side.

3. 8 Idol of Sarasvatī

Idol of Sarasvatī, which is one foot, rine and half inches tall, obtained from Kankālī tilā of Mathurā is in Lakhanow museum. The goddess is sitting on a square seat. The head is broken. There is a book bound with thread in the left hand. The right hand is broken, but it seems that it could be in 'Abhaya' posture. The cloth looks like a sari, and its 'ancala' (the end) is covering the shoulders. On the wrists of both the hands there is one bangle on each one. There is a rosary hanging over the bangle on the right hand. There are two worshipers standing on the both sides of the goddess. The right hand worshiper has a 'kalaśa' (jug) in his hand, and the left side worshiper is standing with his hands folded. The right side one has put on a coat, which looks like a tunic of Saka tribe. There is an inscription on the pedestal. In that it is mentioned that this idol of Sarasvatī was donated by a blacksmith artisan called Singhputra Sobha, for the well being and happiness of all living being, and consecrated it in a Jaina temple. This donation was given to Vacakācārya Āryadeo of Kotika sect in the year 'Samvat 54'. From the script etc this year seems to be of Śaka'Samvat'. Therefore this time period is 78 + 54 = 132 AD, the period of *Kuṣāna* king Huviṣka. The other names, which are included in the inscription, all of them, are also included in the inscription of the Jaina idol of Samvat 52, obtained from Kankālī tilā. This idol and its inscription establish how old is Sarasvatī worshiping in Jaina tradition. So very much ancient idol of Sarasvatī is not found in any other place. Hindu idols of this goddess, of period before Gupta period are not found. That means they are of two-three centuries later than that. The idols of Sarasvatī are found consecrated in Jaina temples of many places, but most of the known idols are produce of middle period. For example, the period of the four-armed standing idol in the outer porch of the 19th temple of Deogarh, is approximately reckoned to be Vikram samvant 1126. 'Vikram samvant 1269' is engraved on the seat of the consecrated idol in the Jaina temple in a place called A ari in the town of Sirohi in Rājaputānā. These idols are found to be two-armed in some places, four armed in some places, riding a peacock in some places and riding a swan in some places. There is always a book in one hand for sure. In other hand or hands, a lotus, a rosary, a 'veena' (a musical instrument), or one or two of them are found. Or the other hand is found in 'Abhaya' posture. These characteristics of this goddess are found in different versions in Jaina consecrationbooks. Also references are found to its hairstyle and candrakālā'. Veerasenācārya the author of Dhavalā ...ikā has bowed down to this goddess in her guite of 'shrit-devata' who has twelve organs in the form of 'Dvādašāriga vānī', a 'tilaka' in the form of 'samygdaršana', and ornaments in the form of the most noble character. A metal-idol of Sarasvatī obtained from Akota is a standing one with very pleased facial expression. It has a crown as well as a halo. A very similar idol is obtained from Vasantagarh also. The tradition of goddesses worshipping is very ancient. But their names, forms, and the types of consecration and the style of worshipping have been changing continuously. There is a reference in Bhagavatī Sūtra (11, 11, 429) that, prince Mahabala at the time of his wedding was given, together with abundant clothes and ornaments, eight idols of 'shri', 'hri' 'dhriti', 'kirti', 'buddhi, 'lakṣmī', 'nanda' and 'bhadra' in the form of gifts. From this it can be assumed that in every well off family, after the wedding these idols were consecrated in the form of 'kuldevatā' (family god).

3.9 Idol of goddess Acyutā or Achehhapta

One idol of goddess Acyutā is obtained from Badanavār (Mālwā). Goddess is mounted on a horse. It has four arms. Both right arms are broken. A shield is seen in the upper left hand, and the rein of the horse in the lower hand. The right leg is in the stirrup and the left one is on the thigh of that leg. In this way the face of the idol is in the front and that of the horse is on its left side. There are ornaments in the neck and the ears. Above the idol there is a formation of canopy. In this there are three Jina-idols. In all four corners there are very small Jaina images. This room is 3 feet 6 inches high. There is an inscription on it. According to it, some families had consecrated the idol of Acyutā goddess in year 'samvant' 1229 (1172 AD)in Śāntinātha 'caityālaya' (temple) in Varddhamānapur. From this inscription it is evident that modern 'Badanavār' is literal degeneration

of 'Varddhamānapur'. Possibly this is that temple of Varddhamānapur, where Ācārya Jinsen had completed his book Harivansh-Purān in Śaka'samvant' 705 (783 AD).

The above given exposition is very concise. From this we acquire only a brief introduction of idols of Jaina *Tīrtharikara* and god-goddess found in museums and ruins, and consecrated and worshiped in temples. If a chronological study of the idols obtained from ancient times is done, then complete knowledge of its commencement and development can be obtained. Mostly the references obtained in the *Purāṇa* literature are expressed and manifested through idols. According to *KalpaSūtra*, a god by name of Harinaigameṣa had abducted Lord Mahāvīra from Brāhmaṇī Devānandā's womb and put him in to the womb of queen Triśalā.

There is a 'toran-khanda' (arched gateway hall) in the ruins obtained from Kankālī Tilla in Mathurā. There is an idol of a god on it. Under this idol words' bhagav nemeso' are written. Based upon this it is clear that it is the idol of god Hari Naigameṣa. This is supported by the form of the face like that of a goat or a deer. Several such idols are found. A child is shown on the shoulder or on the side of the idol. Later on, in place of a face of a goat or a deer, female faces were being made. A child is also shown on the shoulder or on the side of these female-face goddesses. From this it can be assumed that these goddesses were also made in the same tradition as that of Harinaigamesa.

From these examples it is very clear that our ancient pieces of arts are supplementary to the literature in the manifestation of literary and 'paurāṇika' narrations. Their proper evaluation can be done only on the basis of the essential knowledge of literature.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Essay

1. Describe the development process of Jaina art of idol making.

Reply in brief

- 1. Describe a few specialties of Jaina idols of Kusāna period.
- 2. Show specialties of idols of god-goddesses in Jaina art of idol making.

'Bhāratīya sanskriti men Jaina dharma kā yogadān', by Dr. Hirālāl Jain. Bhopal.

Fill in the blanks

1.	An idol engraved at the bottom of the mountains near Badvani Nagar in Madhya Pradesh is famous
	by the name of
2.	Mostly the sign of is found on the chest of Jaina idols.
3.	The world famous idol of Lord Bāhubalī is situated at
4.	The name of 'yakṣini' of the first Tīrthankara is
5.	Many lina idols belonging to Kuṣāna period are obtained from excavations at
6.	Jaina idols of Gupta period are obtained from etc places.
7.	Clothed Jaina idol made of metal is found from a place called
8.\	Idols of <i>Nālarīdā</i> and Deogarh belong tocentury.
9.	Virsenacharya has worshiped goddess in the guise of Śrutadevata.
10.	Idol of Acyutā goddess is obtained from
Book refer	rence:

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LESSON 11(B)

JAINA CULTURE AND ART

Art of painting (Citrakalā)

There is a very ancient history of art of painting in India. Very ancient references to this art are found in literature. Also, we get the most beautiful examples of this art in the Bauddha caves of Ajaritā of Gupta-period. Here we see this art in full bloom. This itself shows that Indian painters should have made many such wall paintings for a long time in past. Then only they could achieve this degree of expertise and practice, the exhibition of which we can see in those caves. The necessary materials and equipment for the art of painting are also very exquisite and delicate, similar to the nature of the art. The plaster on the wall and the hand-drawn lines of the ink by the artist, and the composition of colors can not bear the harshness of the time and natural affliction of sun-shine, rain, wind etc as much as the creations of rock or stone idols made by the art of idol making can bear. For this reason the samples of the art of painting of the period earlier than Gupta-period are either destroyed or are in such ruined condition that it is impossible to get any clear knowledge of their original form.

Many references to the art of painting are found in the most ancient Jaina literature. There is a beautiful description of the bedroom of Dhāraṇī Devī, in the sixth Jaina Sūtra Nāyūdhamma-kahāo. It is described that the ceiling of the bedroom was decorated with the paintings of creepers, flowers, and such beautiful pictures (Nāyādhammakahāo). In the same Śrutānga there is a description of making a painting studio in his recreation. center by prince Malladin. He called a team of painters (artists), and told them to make a picture gallery and furnish it with coquetry, sensuality, and illusions. The team of painters accepted this, and engaged them in making pictures after bringing brushes and paints from their residence. They divided the walls and floors and prepared the surfaces with plaster etc, and began making the above mentioned pictures. One of the painters had achieved such a faculty that he could produce a complete picture of a person or an animal after observing only one of his or her organ (a part of the body). He drew a complete precise picture of princess Malli after seeing only her toe when she was behind a curtain (vahi 8, 78). In some other place in the same Śrutāriga, there is a mention of constructing a 'citrasabhā' (picture gallery) by a rich jeweler by the name of Nanda in a garden in Rājagrha. There were hundreds of pillars in it. There were various types of wooden artifacts, artifacts of lime and cement, paintings, idols made of earth, and different types shapes and images made by weaving, knitting, binding and joining, were produced. In BrihatkalpaSūtra Bhāṣya (2, 5, 262), there is a story of a dancer who was expert in 64 arts. She had got drawn pictures of man of various types, of various tribes, and of various professions in her 'citrasabhā' (picture gallery). Whoever came to see her, she would show him the pictures in her picture gallery and watch his reactions. From his reactions she would know the nature of the visitor, and accordingly would treat him. It is said in one stanza of Āvaśyaka Tīkā, giving an example of a painter, that, practice of a profession only could bring the perfect expertise. Cūrnikāra (the author) has said explaining this matter that, the painter conceives all the dimensions of a form or an image without measuring because of his continuous practice. One more example of dexterity of hand of a painter is given in this Avasyaka Tkā. One artist painted a feather of a peacock with such dexterity that the king tried to pick it up thinking it to be a real thing. In this manner, it is well established by Jaina literary references that the usage of art of painting in Jaina tradition was there since very ancient time. And this art was well developed and well or Ganīsed.

Wall paintings

The most ancient illustrations of Jaina art of painting are found in the caves of Sittannvāsala near Tanjore

in Tamilnāḍu. At one time all the walls and the ceilings were decorated with paintings. And this decoration of caves was done during the rule of king Mahendravarmā the first (625 AD). This king was a follower of Jaina religion before he embraced Śaiva religion. He was such an intense lover of the art of painting that he got compiled a treatise called 'Dakṣina-Citra'. Most of the paintings in the cave are destroyed, but even now some are so well preserved that their original features comes out clearly. Images of angels dancing among the clouds and images of king-queen are clear and beautiful. Two of the ceiling paintings are of lotus-ponds. There is a picture of a couple in the middle of the pond. In it the female is plucking the lotus flower with her right hand, and the male is standing, sticking to her and is holding stalk of lotus in his left hand over his shoulder. This picture of the couple is very beautiful. It is also assumed that this picture is of king Mahendravarmā and his queen. On one side an elephant is rooting up several stalks of lotus by rolling them in its trunk. Somewhere a cow is grazing the stalks of the lotus. A swan couple is dallying. Birds are sitting on the buds of lotus. Fish are swimming in the water. The other picture is a sequel of this. There a man is having a basket full of plucked lotus, and an elephant and a bull are playing. The elephants are of grey color and the bull is of earthen color. Expert's opinion is that, these pictures are of 'khatika-bhūmi' of 'samavasaraṇa' of Tīrtharīkara, where devotees pluck lotus for the sake of prayers.

An imitation of this picture is found in a picture in the temple of Kailāśanātha in ellora. Though this is a Saiva temple, even then with this picture there is another such picture where a procession is shown with a 'digambar' monk sitting in a palanguin. The palanguin is lifted by four men behind and one man in front. There is an umbrella over the palanquin. Ahead five soldiers equipped with spears and shields are walking. The facial expressions, the hairstyle, the eyes, the moustache, and the carrings are all very much alive. On the left side there are seven ladies coming to welcome them. Ahead of them seven soldiers equipped in the same manner are seen. There are umbrellas over the soldiers also. The ladies are holding 'kalaśa' and such other good omens on their head. The style of their sari is similar to southern style, and the 'uttarīya' (the end part of sari) is taken from right side and put on left shoulder. 'Vandanavār' are seen behind them. In this way this picture seems to be of welcoming of a Jaina monk of Bhattaraka sect at the royal gate. According to the opinion of Dr. Moticandjī, the existence of a Jaina scene in a Hindu temple suggests a possibility of taking over the temple by force by Jains in the 12th century. But looking at the complete history of Jaina religion, this surmise seems impossible. Possibly this picture is a symbol of religious generosity of the producer of the picture or of the influence on him of a Jaina monk. In Sailmandir called Indrasabhā (8th to 10th centuries) of Ellora, some signs of wall paintings are seen. But they are so much scattered and hazy that it is impossible to obtain more details about them.

Jainās have strengthened the art of painting in southern area by creating paintings in their Jaina temples during 10-11th centuries. For example even now there are beautiful illustrations of the art of painting existing in Jaina temple of *Tirumalai*. Gods and angels are seen flying between the clouds in the sky. Gods are seen going in a line towards the *Samavasaraṇa'* (congregation). One god is standing among the flowers. Goddesses in white clothes are standing in rows. In one picture two monks are sitting facing each other. One *Digambar* monk is seen giving sermon to a lady who is giving food. One god possibly *Indra* is shown with four arms and three eyes. All these pictures are made on walls in several colors. The brightness of the colors is similar to that of pictures of *Ajaritā*. In the pictures of *'devo'* (gods), *'Āryo'*, and *'munio'* (monks) the shape of the nose and the chin is angular. And the other eye is seen to be coming out of the face. The later art of painting is much influenced by this style.

There exist many beautiful wall paintings in Jaina mathha of Sravanabelagola. In one of them Lord Pārśvanātha is seen seating in the 'samavasaraṇa' (congregation). The painting of divine sound of Lord Neminātha is also done beautifully. Six 'leśyā' of Jaina religion are explained in a painting by an illustration of one tree and six men. As per this illustration, the man with 'kṛṣṇaleśyā' cuts down the whole tree to eat the fruits of the tree. The person with 'nīlaleśyā' cuts the big branches; the one with 'kāpotaleśyā' cuts the twigs,

the one with 'pītaleśyā' plucks all ripe and unripe fruits, a person with padmaleśyā eats plucking up thopse ripe fruits. And the person with 'śuklaleśyā' eats picking up those ripe fruits, which have fallen down, without damaging the tree. Such other illustrations of religious preaching are found in the paintings of the 'mathha'. There is also a painting wherein the royal court of the king Kṛṣṇarāja Odiyara (third) is exihibited as on a 'Daśaharā' day.

Paintings on Palm leaves

The development of art of wall paintings in Jaina temples is found especially up to 11th century. Thereafter the palm-leaf became the basis of the art of painting. Hand written palm-leaves books of, from that time up to 14-15th century are found in Jaina 'śāstra bhandāras' (manuscript libraries) in thousands. The paintings are mostly made above or below the text, or in the right or left margins, or some times in the center of the paper. Most of the paintings are made for decoration or to increase interest in religion. Only very few paintings have direct relation with the subject of the book.

The most ancient palm-leaf-books are found in Jaina libraries, in south, in *Moodgo* in the state of My sore, and in north, in Pāṭan (gujarat). Palmleaf editions of 'Saṭkhanḍāgama', are very important from both the point of views, its books and paintings. According to Digambar traditions these are the most ancient creations in the protected literature. It is proved that the original was written in 2nd and its commentary was written in the 9th century. The last edition out of the three editions of this book of Moodgiri was written somewhere in 1113 AD. In this, there are five palm-leaves with paintings. Two of them are full of paintings. The other two have writing in the center and paintings above and below. The third one is divided in three parts. All the three parts have writing all over, but there is one circular diagram of 'cakra' on both the ends. Within the circumference of the 'cakra' there are several angular diagrams, and in the center again there is a small 'cakra'. In the ring formed in between them, there are six square diagrams. Out of the two having writing in the center and the paintings on both sides, one has a border of flowery decoration and also two each. beautiful circular diagrams of different types. In the other one, on the right side, there are nude sitting idols, in front of which two females are standing in dancing posture. Their braid of hair is in the form of a 'cakra' with flowers. They have their 'uttarīya' spread from below the right shoulder to above the left one. On the left side, there is a sitting Jina-idol with halo. There are some figures of animals on the throne of the idol. On both the sides of the idol there are figures of two men. And adjacent to that there are two independent idols of goddesses, one standing and another sitting on a lotus with swan. One of the palm-leaf out of the two full of paintings, has in its center, a sitting lina-idol having one god each standing on both the sides. On both the sides of this picture, there are two each similar looking sitting Jain-idols. They have a halo behind, flappers on sides, and figures of 'cakra' above. Thereafter, there are one each on both sides, idols of four-armed goddess in 'bhadrāsana' posture. They have a prodder in the right hand, and a lotus in the left hand. The other two hands are in posture of 'varada' and 'Abhaya'. In the pictures on both the borders the 'guru' is giving sermon to the 'śrāvaka' sitting in front with folded hands. A 'sthāpanacārya' is kept in the center. In the other palmleaf, there is a sitting Jina-idol. On its both the sides there are seven monks sitting in different 'asana' with different postures of hands. All the figures of these palm-leaf paintings are very alive and full of art. One special point to note is that nowhere in these pictures the eye is seen going out of the facial lines. The shape of the nose and the chin are not angular, which we find in the later developed western Jaina style.

We find contemporary illustrations of western art of painting in the palm-leaf facsimile of Nisītha-cūrni in the safe custody of library of Saṅghavi-pada in Pāṭan. This copy was written during the rule of Soroonki king Jaisingh (1094 to 1143 AD) in Bhṛgukutchchha (Bharuch) as perits foreword. There are many decorative 'cakra' (circular) diagrams in it. Mostly they are of the same style, as that of Ṣaṭkhaṅḍāgama as described above. In one of the 'cakra', a picture of an elephant rider and in another one a picture of two fairies holding flower garlands are especially noteworthy. Like pictures of Ṣaṭkhaṅḍāgama, here also the lines of first eye do

not go out the facial lines. The picture of Lord Mahāvīra in sitting 'padmāsana' posture together with 'cauri vahaka' (palanquin bearer) and a picture of goddess Sarasvatī in 'tribhanga' are especially noteworthy in palm-leaf copy of 'JñātadharmaSūtra', written in 1127 AD now existing in Nāginadās Ṣāṭkhanḍāgama library in Śāntinātha Jaina temple in Khambhāt. The goddess is four armed. In the upper two hands there are lotus flowers and in lower hands a rosary and a book. There is a swan in front. The happiness on the face, and the disposition and the charm of the organs of the body are beautifully inscribed.

The paintings of palm-leaf copy of 'Oghaniyurkti' (1161AD) in Jaina library of Caniin Vadodara are of special importance, because beautiful paintings of 16 'vidyādevī' and other goddesses and 'yakṣa' are available in them. The names of the 'vidyādevī' are 'Rohiṇī', 'Prajñapti', 'Vajraśrinkhalā', 'Vajramkuśi', 'Cakreśvarī', 'Puruṣadattā', 'Kālī' 'Mahākālī', 'Gaurī', 'Gāndhārī', 'Mahājvālā', 'Mānavi', 'Vairotya', 'Acchupta', 'Mānasī', and 'Mahāmānasī'. The other god-goddesses are Kapardiyakṣa, Sarasvatī, Ambikā, Mahālaxmī, and Brahmaśānti. All the goddesses are in 'bhadrāṣana' posture and are four armed. There are symbols of 'śakti', 'ankuśa', bow, arrow, 'śrinkhalā', 'śankha', 'asi', shield, flower, fruit, and book, in the hands with postures of 'varad' and 'Abhaya'. There are, halo behind the head, throne on the head, earrings in the ears, and necklace in the neck. Ambikā has only two hands. She has a child in her right hand and a branch with bunch of mango fruits in her left hand. In all these figures, the other eye is out, and the shape of nose and the chin is seen clearly angular. All the decorations are traditional. The existence of these paintings show that during that period, in some of the Jaina procedures of worshipping, several Śaiva and Vaiṣṇava god-goddesses were accepted.

There are 23 paintings in the palm-leaf edition of 'Subāhu-kathaḍi kathā-saṅgraha' written in 1288 AD. Many of them have their own speciality. In one of them, there is a beautiful illustration of Lord Neminātha's bridegroom procession. The bride Rājimati is sitting in the we tong pavilion. At the door of the pavilion a man with folded hands welcomes Neminātha riding on an elephant. On the lower side there are figures of deer. There are two paintings of the monk Baladeo. In one, deer and other animals are listening to the sermon of the monk Baladeo. In the other one, he is accepting food from a charioteer standing with a deer below a tree. According to Dr. Motichand's opinion pictures of animals and trees are depicted for the first time on a palm-leaf in the paintings of this book. Also the painting style of the western India is seen stabilized in these paintings. Here the angular shape of the nose and the chin, and the lines of the eye going out of the border of the face, are seen to become traditional.

There are differences of opinions about the name of this style of painting. Norman Brown has called this as 'Svetāmbar' Jaina style'. Because, according to his opinion this style is used in Svetāmbar' Jaina books. And the lines of the eye going out of the facial border is probably due their tradition of fixing artificial eyes on Tīrtharikara's idois. Dr. Kumār Swāmī has called it 'Jainakalā'. Mr. N.C. Mehta has called it 'Gujarati Śailī'. According to the opinion of Śree Rāikniṣṇadās we see derision of the Indian art of painting in this style. Therefore it will be proper to call it 'corrupted style'. But centuries before all this, East Tibetian historian Tārānātha (16th century AD) has referred to 'Paścima Bhārtīya Śailī' (Western Indian Style). And Dr. Moticand has accepted its propriety, because the commencement and development of this style, as per the available evidences, are proved to be in west India and particularly in the region of Gujarāt-Rājaputānā. According to Tārānātha's opinion, the Western art style was started by an expert painter called Śringadhara of Maru (Marawar). And it was during the period of Harṣavardhana (610 to 650 AD). Gradually this style reached up to Nepāl and Kaśmīr. From the available evidences it is clear that if not the beginning, its growth is certainly nourished within Jaina tradition. Therefore its name as 'Jainaśaili' is not improper.

The following are the common characteristics of the palm-leaf paintings presented above. From the subject point of view they are limited to only the pictures of *Tirtharikara*, god-goddesses, monks, and patrons of religion. The artist has not faced the problems of composition and background. The postures of the above

said figures are much limited and traditional. The graphics are only linear and therefore do not have the three dimensional depth. Usage of colors is also very limited. Mostly the ground is red like fire baked bricks. The figures are of yellow, vermilion red, blue, and white, and sometimes of green colors. But in the illustrations, obtained of the palm-leaf paintings made during the century 1350 to 1450 AD, we see some speciality from the technical and beauty point of view. The drawings of images are more minute and with more craft. From the subject point of view, the events of Tirthankara's life are more illustrative, and efforts to make them descriptive are seen. Also more varieties and special shiring are seen in the coloration. The use of golden color is seen for the first time during this period. All this is believed to be influence of Irani art of painting, which came here with Muslims. Later during the period of Akaber (16th century) this got developed as Indian-Irani art of painting, this then became popular and famous as 'Mugal śailī'. Representative paintings of this art are found more in editions of KalpaSūtra. Among them, the edition of 'Ānandjī MAngaliī Pedthi' library in Idar, in which there are 34 paintings related to life-events of Lord Mahāvīra, Pārśvanātha, and Neminātha, is the most important. The first use of golden color was made in this edition. Later on we find some paintings wherein gold-color is not only used in the pictures in large quantity, but the whole book is written with golden ink. And also in some of them the whole background is of golden color on which the writing is done with silver ink. A KalpaSūtra is published with 374 paintings taken from eight palm-leaf and twenty paper editions of kalpaSūtra ('Pavitra KalpaSūtra', Ahemadavad). Professor Norman Brown has in his book 'The story of Kalak' (Washington, 1933) described 34 paintings. Naviāb Sarābhāi has in his book, 'Kalak Kathā Sangraha' (Ahemadavad) presented 88 paintings from 6 palm-leaf and 9 paper editions. Dr. Motichand has in his book, 'Jaina Miniature Paintings from Western India' (Ahemadavad) presented 262 paintings. And also based upon it, he has presented a very important chical review of Jaina art of painting.

Paintings on Paper

It is believed that the invention of paper was done in China in the year 105 AD. In 10-11th century it was produced in Arab countries and from there it came to India. Muni Jinavijayajī has found the last page of that copy of 'Dhvnyaloka-Locana', which was written for Jinacandrasūrī. As per Muniji, the time of its writing is approximately 1160 AD. The writing time of paper edition of *Upāsakacāra* (Ratnakaranda Śrāvakācāra) of Karanja Jaina Library, together with its commentary written by Prabhācanda is V.S. 1415 (1358 AD). But the most ancient paper edition with paintings is that of *KalpSūtra*, which is written in 1427, and is safe in the India office library of London.

There are 31 paintings in it and another 13 are in *Kālakācāryakathā* that is grouped together with it. All the 113 pages of this book are written with silver-ink on black or red background. Some pages are also written with gold-ink on red or plain background. There are pictures of elephants, rows of swans, flowers and leaves, and lotus etc are drawn in the margins of the book for decoration. One edition with paintings of 'Supāsnāha-Cariyam' originally written by LaxamnāGaṇī, in Hemacandracārya Jaina-jñāna library of Patan is written by Muni Hirānanda disciple of Paṇḍit Bhāvacandra in V.S. 1479 (!422 AD). There are total 37 paintings in it. Six of them are in full pages, while on other pages some are in half or one-third part of the page drawn in the margins. Among them the paintings of Tirthankara Supārśva, Sarasvatī, 'mātrusvapna' (mother's dream), 'vivāha', (wodding), 'samavasaraṇa', (congregation), 'deśanā' (sermon), etc are very beautiful. Several editions of the later period of KalpaSūtra with paintings are found in different Jaina libraries. Among them the noteworthy is in Narasinghaji jñāna-bhandār library in Vadodara. This edition was written on the order of Harşini Srāvikā in V.S.1522 in Yavanapur (Jaunapur, U.P.) during the rule of Husainsāha. There are 86 pages in it. All the writing is in gold-ink. There are eight paintings in it. In them there are pictures of coronation of R sabhdeo, duel of Bharat-Bāhubalī, dreams of Lord Mahāvīra's mother, dance of Kośā, etc. In these pictures yellow, green, blue, etc colors, together with gold color in large quantity, are used on red background. The characteristics of western style are very clear. The faces of women look more sophisticated and the lips are shown painted with lipstick. Another especially noteworthy edition of KalpaSūtra is that of

Deosen Pada of Ahemadabad. This was written on the instructions of descendants of Sana and Juda businessman of *Gandharbandāra* near *Bharuch*. This is also written with gold ink. Some 25-26 of its paintings are believed to be the best from the art point of view; because various dancing postures as described in *Bharat-Natyaṃ* are inscribed in them. In one painting the event of subduing of cobra Candakauśika by Lord Mahāvīra is shown. The paintings of its borders are beautifully done. This is believed to be the influence of Irani art. One can see the glimpses of *Mugal śailī* of Akabar period in it.

All the above-described editions with paintings are of Śwetāmbar traditions, and the experts have already studied their paintings. Unfortunately research in the Digambar libraries is still not done. It is known that there are editions with paintings in many Digambar 'śātra-bhanḍāra' (libraries). For example, in one such library in Delhi there is an edition of corrupt Mahapuran written by Puṣpadant. There are hundreds of paintings exhibiting events of Tīrtharikara's life in them. There is an edition of Yaśodharā Caritra in a library in Nagaur, the paintings of which are very much appreciated by the people. An edition of Suganānadasami Katha is found from a library in Nāgapur. In this there are more than 70 paintings to illustrate the story. There is one pictorial edition of Bhaktāmar Stotra in Ailaka Pannālal Digambar Jaina Sarasvatī Bhavan, of Mumbai. In this, there are about 40 paintings. In one painting there is an image of four-faced Ādinātha on lotus throne. On its one side there is a digambar monk, and on the other side a king wearing a crown, is standing. Pictorial editions of Trilokasār written by Nemicandra are available. In this pictures of Nemicandra and his student chief minister Cāmundarāi are found. There is a big necessity for an artistic study of these paintings. It is expected that it will throw more light on the Jaina art of painting.

Obtaining the support of paper as the base, there were some changes and development in the method of art of painting. Owing to limitation of dimensions of the palm-leaf the painter was restrained. He could not get any space more than two-two and a half inches wide. This limitation disappeared on paper, and he could obtain required length and width for making a picture. This gave a lot of facility to create different sizes and compositions of the pictures. There was also a big increase in the choice of colors. Proper settling of colors on the palm-leaf was a difficult task, while the paper would very easily absorb the colors. With this, the use of gold-silver colors also begun. Before this, the use of gold color was very limited. It was used to paint some ornaments by dipping only the tip of the brush. Possibly the high cost of gold at that time may be one of the reason. But then it seems, later the gold was easily available. Or the attention of rich people was attracted towards the art of painting. As a result of which not only in the paintings, but also in writing the text of the book, the gold and silver ink was very widely used. The painters are seen so very much impressed by the shine of the gold that, mostly the whole background of the picture was painted in gold. Even the clothes of Jaina monks were exhibited in gold color. The tendency of believing that more gold means more beautiful should be considered as a perversion of the interest in the art of painting. But there is no doubt that the comprehensive use of gold among the different colors has created an incomparable beauty.

Wooden Paintings

Some specimen of paintings made over wood are also found in Jaina 'Sāstra-bhaṅḍāras'. Formerly these wood-planks were kept above and below the palm-leaf edition for its protection. One such wooden painting is found by Muni Jinavijayajā from the 'jñāna-bhaṅḍār' of Jaisalmer. This is 27 inches long and 3 inches wide. The colors are so strong and lasting that they can not be washed away with water. In the center of the board there is a picture of a temple, in which there is a Jina-idol. Attendants are standing on both the sides of the idol. In the right corner two devotees are standing with folded hands. Two persons are enjoying playing drums. And two dancers are dancing. Above in the sky a fairy is flying. In the left corner, three devotees are standing with folded hands, and one angel is flying in the sky. On both the sides of this central picture, there are two sermon meetings in process. In one of them Ācārya Jinadattasūrī is sitting. His name is also written there. In front of him Paṅḍit Jinarakshit is sitting. There are other male and female devotees. In

front of the monks the 'sthāpnācārya' is kept, on which name of Lord Mahāvīra is written. In the left side sermon meeting, Ācārya Jinadatta is having a discussion with Gunacandracārya. The 'sthāpanācārya is kept in between them. Muni Jinavijayaji's surmise is that; it may not be surprising if the picture was made during the lifetime of JinaduttaSūri. It is established that his birth was in V.S. 1132 and his death was in V.S. 1211. Possibly the above said picture was made at the time of his initiation in the temple of Vikramapur in Marvar. One more wood painting is found by Muni Jinavijayajī from the same 'jhāna-bhardara' of Jaisalmer. This is 30 inches long and 3 inches wide. In this, several events related to 'śāstrārtha' (technical discussion) between Vādideosūrī and Ācārya Kumudcandra are painted. There is a wood-painting of 12th century in the collection of Śree Sarābhāi Navāb, that is 30 inches long and two and three quarter inches wide. In this the picture of the duel between Bhārat and Bāhubalī is painted. There are pictures of elephant, swan, lion, lotus, etc beautifully made. The wood-board of palm-leaf edition of Sūtrakritānga vritti written in V.S. 1456, is 34 inches long. This is painted with pictures of the events of Lord Mahāvīra's life. Like that, the wood-board of Dharmopadeśmālā writtenin V.S. 1425, is 35 ŏ inches long and 3 inches wide. On this, events of Fārśvanātha's life are depicted. In general all these wood-paintings are in 'paścimī' (western) style.

Paintings on cloth

The art of painting on cloth is very ancient in India. Many references to this are found in $P\bar{a}l\bar{t}$ books and Jaina Agamā (scriptures). Mankhalī, once a disciple of Lord Mahāvīra, and then an opponent, the father of Gosala, and Gosala himself before his initiation, were earning their livelihood by showing pictures. But the cloth is a perishable material. And possibly because of that, not any ancient samples are available. Even then many Jaina paintings on cloth, of 14th century and thereafter are obtained. One cloth painting, 19 û inches long and 17 ½ inches wide, titled 'Cintāmarii', made in V. S. 1411 (1354 AD) is in collection of Sri Agaracandra Nāhatā of Bikāner. Pictures of Pārśvanātha in 'padmāsana' pose, his 'yakṣ-yakṣini' Dharnendra and Padmāvatī, and the palanguin bearers are seen in it. Also on the upper side, there are pictures of Pārśvayaksh, and Vairotyā devī and two angels. Down below there is a picture of Tarunaprabhacārya and his two disciples. A similar canvasis in Šri Sarābhāi Navab's collection. In this, chief Gaṇadhara of Lord Mahāvīra, Gautama is sitting on a lotus throne and two monks are standing on his both sides. Also outside the canopy there are pictures of Kali and Bhairava riding a horse, and also of Dharanendra and Padmāvatī. This canvas was made for Bhavadeosuri in V.S. 1412. One cloth painting is in Dr. KumārSwāmī's collection, which according to his opinion, is of 16th century. But according to Dr. Moticanda's opinion, it is of early 15th century. On the left side of canvas, there is a picture of congregation of Pārśvanātha. All around it there are pictures of 'yakṣayakṣini, together with five pictures of "Omakāra", pictures of five 'siddha' idols sitting on the shape of moon, and SudharmāSwāmī, and 'navag ha'. In the center of the canvas, the idol of Pāršvanātha is painted sitting in a temple with a 'sikhara' (peak) and a flag. It is presumed that the temple is 'Satrunjaya' temple and those five *'siddha'* idols are of five *'Fārdava'* who attained the salvation in *Satrunjaya*. Many such other canvases are found. These were probably used for worship and for prosperity. But from the art point of view also they are

(Collected with thanks from the book, 'Bhāratīya Sanskriti Mein Jaina Dharma Kā Yogadāna' by Dr. Hīrālāl)

QUESTIONNAIRE

Essay

In what different forms the Jaina art of painting is found? Throw light on specialties of the Jaina art 1. of painting based upon palm-leaf and paper.

Brief notes

- Explain in brief. What goal was achieved by painting in Pānḍu scripts?
- Describe in brief the specialties of wood-paintings or paintings on cloth, within the Jaina art of painting.

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	1					
tive	Questions			ashya?		
L.	How many types of art		-	ashya?		
	a)52 b)6	4 c) 108	d) 360	. 20		
2.	In which Jaina book the		-			
	a) JhatādharmakathS		b) Kaṣāyapāhuḍa l) Śaṭakhaṅdāgama	ili)		
3.	c) <i>Āvaśyaka Ţīka</i> In which book there is		, , ,	arien by ManikarŚresthinańda?		
٥.	a) Brhatkalpabhāsya		state ganet j made ma g syaka Tikā	ar terroy warikar oreși manda.		
	c) Jhatādharmakathā	·				
4.	From where the samp	les of wallpainting	gs of the Jaine art of pai	nting are found?		
	a) Tanjore	b) Ellora	c) Śravanakelagola	d) All these		
5.	Where do we find the paintings on the subject of acceptance of many <i>Vaiśnava</i> and <i>Śaiva</i> godgoddess in Jaina worship? a) Palm-leaf edition of <i>OghaNiryukti</i> b) Edition of <i>Upāsakācār</i> painted on paper c) Palm-leaf edition of <i>Sūtrakritangavriti</i> d) Edition of <i>Bhaktāmar Strotra</i> painted on paper					
6.	a) Caves of Sittanavā	sal b) Jaina	Jaina religion is explair matha of Šravaņbelg īśanātha temple of Ello	olā		
7.	Which is the palm-les	fedition where th	e wedding procession o	of Neminātha is painted?		
	a) Subāhukathādisan,	-	b) OghaNiryukti			
	c) Niśīthacūrni	d) <i>Jñāt</i>	ādharmakathāṇga			
8.	. (a)	-	nting on paper possibly	-		
	a) Earlier than 10-11t	-	b) After 10-11th centu	ry		
	c) From 14-15th cent	-	d) After 15th century	1.4 -1.0		
20		painted on the wo eminātha	ood board of <i>Dharmop</i> o c) Pārśvanātha d) Lord			
10.	. Which is the most and	zient form of art of	painting?			
	a) Palm-leaf paining	b) Painting on pag	per c) Wall painting	d) Painting on wood-board		
E Ait	Edited by: Poof (Do) Kamal Canda Sonāni					

Edited by: Prof. (Dr.) Kamal Canda Sogāni

LESSON 12:

STMPA (TOPE), GUFĀ (CAVE) AND MANDIRA (TEMPLE)

Composition of 'caitya'- Reference to 'caitya' is found often in Jain scriptures as a part of description of a city and also as an independent prominent place. Here a description of a 'caitya' by name 'Poornabhadra', situated outside Cainpānagarī in northeast direction is given as an example. The 'caitya' was built by ancestors in ancient time, and was very well known and famous. It was decorated with 'chhatra' (umbrella), bells, flags, and banners. 'Cāmara' (decorative brushes) were hanging on the walls. Illustrations of cow heads and forms of palms of hands made in red color were adorned on the walls. Several beautiful sandalwood pots were placed. Very big round garlands were handing. There were decorations of beautiful aromatic flowers. The air was full of fragrance of many scent and perfumes. There were crowds of actors, dancers, acrobats, musicians, bards, and such people. Many people were coming there. People were declaring donations. People were praying, worshiping, respecting, bowing, and welcoming. Such was this auspicious godlike 'caitya' which was fit for all the respect. It was divine and was true instrument to fulfill one's all wishes. There were several doorkeepers. Many people visited this 'Poornabhadra caitya' for worshiping.

Jain 'Caitya' and 'Stūpa'

There is a description of Lord Mahāvīra when he was not omniscient, doing meditation under an Aśoka tree in the garden of city of Sumsumarpura, in *Bhagavatī Vyākhyāprajñyapti Sūtra* (3, 2, 143). It is also said in *TiloyaPaṇṇatti* that, each tree under which different 'Kevalī' became omniscient, is called his Aśoka tree. This way, Aśoka is a name of a particular tree and also is a symbol of all trees related to 'kevaljañ an' (omniscience). Possibly because of this reason the tradition of setting up of idols under the trees might have started. Naturally it became necessary to build a platform around the tree to set up the idols. This platform was built by arranging heaps of bricks. The arrangement of heap up of bricks is called 'cit'. Therefore the tree with such platform was called 'caitya'. This tradition of building 'cit' is very ancient. In *Vaidika* literature also the altar of sacrifice is given this name. In this manner the 'stūpa' constructed by 'cit' is called 'caitya stūpa'.

In Āvaśyaka Niryukti (ga 435) there is a mention of constructing 'stūpa', 'caitya', or 'jinagriha' when a Tīrthańkara attained nirvāņ. While writing commentary on this Ācārya Haribhadra Sūrī has mentioned the following. "On death of Lord Rishabhdeo his son Bharat had constructed a 'caitya' and a 'sinhanishadyāyātana' at the place of his 'nirvana' on mount Kailaśa. In Ardhamāgadhi Jambudivapanntti (2, 33) a detailed descriptin of obsequies and construction of 'caitya stūpa' over the physical remains of the body is given. This makes it very clear that there was a tradition of constructing 'stūpa' over the pyre of great persons. Existence of this tradition is also corroborated by the description given in Pali books of 'nirvana' of Buddha and the obsequies of his body.

There is a dialogue in *Mahāparinibbanasutta* where in disciples of Lord Buddha asked him as to how should his body be honored after his 'nirvāṇ'. In reply to that Buddha said, "Oh Ānaṅda! As the body of an emperor is lapped up with clothes, put into a wooden through filled with oil, and covered up with a 'stūpa'; my body may be honored in the same manner. This makes it very clear that in ancient times there was a tradition of constructing 'stūpa' on the pyre or at some other place in the memory of kings and great religious persons. Also the circular shape of the 'stūpa' which is similar to circular shape of cemetery confirms this.

Unfortunately Jaina 'stūpas' are not found among the known ones. But there are ample evidences

available to show that many Jaina 'stūpa; were also constructed. There is a reference in Āvaśyakacūrņi written by Jindāsa that a 'stūpa' was constructed in Vaiśālī in very ancient period as a memorial to 22nd Tīrtharikara Muni Suvrata. But till now no signs or relics are found. But relics of a very ancient Jaina 'stūpa' are found in large quantity near *Mathurā*. According to *Brihatkathakośa* written by Harishena (12, 132) in very ancient times five 'stūpa' were constructed by Vidyādhara. The popularity and memory of these five 'stūpa' are found in genealogy of several monks. The 'Tāmrapatra' (ancient writings on copper plate) belonging to fifth century Ācārya Guhānanadī found in *Pahādapurā* (West Bengal) has a reference to these five 'stūpa'. The author of DhavalāŢikā Vīrsenācārya and his disciple and author of Mahāpurāṇa Jinasen. had identified themselves as 'Paricastūpanvayt' (belonging to lineage of Paricastūpa). It is found that following this lineage the name of 'Senanyaya' has become popular. The book Vividha' Tīrtha' Kalpa written by Jinaprabhasuri has a reference to a 'stūpa' constructed in the memory of Tīrtharkara Supashvanātha by a goddess in very ancient times and restoration of this was done during the period of Tārthankara Parsvanātha. and that it was again restored after one thousand years by Bappabhatti Sūrī. According to the book Jambuswamicharit written by Rajamalla tha, in his time (the period of Mogul emperor Akrara) 515 'stūpa' were existing in ruined condition near Mathurā. These were restored by a wealthy business man by the name of Todar by spending much money. There is a reference in an inscription made on a throne (2nd century). found from the ruins obtained while digging Kankali Tilla near Mathurā, to a 'stūra' constructed by a god. This is also corroborated by the earlier referred writing of Harishena and Jinaprauha. The descriptions of the same god-constructed 'stūpa' in Mathurā are also found in Āvašyaka-Niryukti Vriti written by Haribhadrasuri. and Yaśastilaka-champoo written by Somadeo. Very ancientness of this 'stūpa' is so established by all these references.

1.1 'Stūpa' of Mathurā

The original layout of the 'stūpa' of Mathurā can be clearly visualised from the relics obtained from the ruins. The base of the 'stūpa' was round with 47 feet diameter. Walls were constructed on radius going towards the circumference from the center. The portion between the walls was filled with earth to make the towards the circumference from the center. The bricks were found of unequal size. Jaina idols were made on the outside of 'stūpa'. How the whole 'stūpa' looked like could be visualized from the relics of the ruins. Several types of stone-pillars with paintings were found. From these pillars it could be imagined that there was an enclosure and some decorative gates around the 'stūpa'. Also two long stone slabs were found on which complete figures of 'stūpa' were drawn. These could be possibly of the same 'stūpa'. The 'stūpa' was surrounded by railings. There were 7 or 8 ladders leading to the decorative gate. The gate was made of two vertical columns and three horizontal columns placed at some distance. Both the ower parts of the lowest column were supported by fish shaped lions. On the right side and the left side of the 'stūpa', there were two beautiful pillars on which there were figures of sitting lions and the religious-wheel in series. There were fifth the sides of the dome of the 'stūpa' there were figures of amorous females possibly of 'yaksinies' (lower types of gods). Below the enclosure on both the sides of ladders there were small recesses in the wall. In these recesses on the south side a male with a child and on the other side a female figure were seen. There is an inscription of six lines written in Prākrit language on the dome of the 'stūpa'. In this, first there is a bowingdown prayer to 'Arhanta Vardhamana' (Lord Mahāvīra). Thereafter it is said, "Śramana-śrāvikā Vasu-Gaṇikā, daughter of a gaṇikā named Śramana-śrāvikā Āryā-Lavanośobhikā has installed and established for worshiping Arhanta in Jaina temple together with her mother, sister, and on son of her daughter, a temple of Arahanta, a meeting hall, a place for providing drinking water, and this inscription plate". The size of the inscription place is 2 ft. x 13/4 ft. x 1 inch. This size, the type of alphabet and the kind of paintings of the inscription identify itself to belong to the period of 'Kuṣāṇa' (ca 2nd century B.C.).

One more painted some structure, which is even more ancient than the described above is found. Its upper portion is broken. But its arched gateway, the enclosure, the staircase, and the two idols of 'yakṣiṇī' are

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even more distinct than the other one described above. On this one also in the writing first there is a bowing-down prayer to Arhanta and then it is said, "Śivayaśā wife of dancer Faguyaśa has built this 'āyāgapaṭa' (structure) for worshiping Arahanta". According to V. Smith, the type of alphabet of this inscription looks even more ancient than the inscription made on the gateway of Bharahuta 'stūpa' of Śuriga period of 150 B.C. In this manner this structure of 200 B.C. proves that the types of 'stūpa' in Jaina tradition were even more ancient than this. And also there are several reasons for not finding any Jaina 'stūpa' in protected condition. One of them was new production of 'stūpa' stopped with increased usage of cave-caitya, and temples. And no proper attention was given to the protection of the old and ancient 'stūpa'. And also it is now very clear that, the art of Buddha and Jaina 'stūpa' was very similar or almost the same. In fact this art was a parallel flow of Śarmana culture.

One more ruins of 'āyāgapaṭa' is obtained near *Mathurā*. In this there is a Jina idol with 'chhatra' and 'cāmara'. Around this there are decorative pictures of 'triratna' (jewels), 'kalaśa', (a pitcher), 'natsya yugal' (a fish couple), elephant and such other good omens. "Ayagapaṭa' were plates of stone with inscription. They were even worshipped.

Jaina caves

It has been ordained for Jaina monks since very ancients times that, they should reside in lonely caves of mountains or forests away from city, towns and such thickly populated place. Living in solitary place is an essential part of their religious practice for salvation. (*TattvārthaSūtra 7.6 Sarvārthasiddhi*). And wherever Jaina monks reside there would be establishment of Jain idols for worsniping and meditation etc. In the beginning the natural caves supported by rocks were being used. Such caves are found at the base of mountains in many places. These are the caves which could be called natural *'caityālaya'* as believed by Jain tradition. Subsequently these caves were being developed with artificial tools. And wherever suitable rocks were found they were cut into cave dwellings and temples. Among such caves the most ancient and famous Jaina caves are situated in the mountain ranges of *Bārabarā* and *Nāgārjuni*. These mountains are about 15-20 miles away from the railway station Gela on the Patana-*Gayā* railway line. There are four caves in *Bārabarā* mountains and three caves in *Nāgārjuni* mountains about one mile away from there. The caves at *Bārabarā* were built by Aśoka, and the caves at nagarjuni were built by his son Daśaratha, for the monks of '*Ājīvaka*' sect. At that time (3rd century B.C.), though '*Ājīvaka*' sect was a different sect, yet from historical evidences it is established that its origin and end was within Jaina sects.

Two caves of Bārabarā mountains were built by king Aśoka during the 12th year and the third one was built during the 19th year of his rule. There is a clear reference about giving charity to 'Ājīvaka' in the inscriptions found in the caves named 'Sudāmā and 'Viśva zopadi'. In the inscription found in the 'Sudāmā cave, the cave is called 'Nyagrogha cave'. There are two halls in it. The outer one is 33ft. x 20 ft. and the inner one is 19 ft. x 19 ft. in length and breadth and the height is about 12 ft.. In the inscription found in 'Viśva zopadi' this mountain is referred to as 'Khalaţika' mountain. The remaining two caves are name as 'Karaṇa Caupara' and 'Lomasariśi'. But in the inscription "Karaṇa Caupara' is called 'Supiyagufā' and 'Lomasariśi is called 'Pravaragirigufā'. All these caves are built hard black rocks. And they are given the same shining polish, which is considered a speciality of Maurya period.

The names of the three caves in 'Nāgārjuni' mountains are, 'Gopi gufā', 'Bahiya ki gufā', and 'Vedathika gufā'. The first cave is 45 ft. long and 19 ft. broad. In one of the articles of Ananta Verma this cave is called 'Vindhyabhudhara guhā'. Even though in the inscription of Daśaratha the name 'Gopikā guhā' is very distinctly inscribed. And there is also a reference to the charity made to Ājīvaka monks. Similar inscriptin is found in the rest of the two caves mentioned.

Secondly at that time there was a famous Jaina temple and an idol, which were sacred for all the people

of that area. Thirdly the Nanda-emperor who took away this Jaina idol and kept it safe at his place must be a believer of Jaina religion. And also that he would have built a Jaina temple for the idol at his place. The fourth is that there would have been a regular competition between the people of Kalinga and that of Magadha for about two-three centuries for that famous Jaina idol. Therefore the Kalinga emperor thought it essential to bring it back and establish it in his place. This way, these caves, and the inscriptions are very important things for Indian history and particularly for Jaina history.

A Jaina cave named *Sonabharidāra* near *Maniārā Maţha* in one of the mountains of *Rājagiri* is also worth mentioning. This could also be a very ancient one. There is an inscription in Brāhmī script of the first second century. According to that Ācāryaratna VairaDevamuni had got built two caves for the dwellings of Jain monks, and also established idols of Arahants in them. One Jaina idol and a pillar with four-faced Jain idol still exist there. The second cave for which there is a reference in that inscription must be the one, which exists next to it, but has now become a cave of *Viṣṇu*.

There are two caves in a place called Pabhosa near *Prayāga* and *Kausama* (ancient *Kauśāmbī*). There are inscriptions in *Śuṅga*-period script (2nd century B.C.). There it is said, that these caves were donated by Āṣāḍhhsen of Ahicchhtra for Kāśyapīya Arahanto. It should be noted that Lord Mahāvīra belonged to *Kaśyapa* 'gotra' (dynasty). Possibly his follower monks were known as *Kāśyapīya* Arahat. From this it can be surmised that at that time there was existing some other sample Jaina monks possibly that of the followers of Lord Parśvanātha. Gradually this seams to have merged into the sample of monks of Lord Māhāvira.

There are some caves near Bābā Pyārāmaṭhha of Junāgaḍhha (Saurāsṭra). They are situated in three rows. One extends towards north, the second towards east and the third beginning from behind the second extends towards west-north. All these caves can be divided into two groups. One group is that of those caves which are 'caitya' caves and the small rooms related to them. According to Mr. Varjesa, these are of 2nd century B.C. period when the first time Buddha monks reached Gujarat. In the second group are those caves and classrooms, which are constructed, in a better style than the first group. And in which Jaina symbols are found. These seem to belong to the period of Ksairava kings in the 2nd century AD. One of these Jaina caves is especially noteworthy. The broken inscription found from this cave, has a reference to the Ksatrapa dynasty and to the great grand son of Castana and grandson of Jayadaman, Rudrasinha the first. Even though the inscription can not be read completely, it could be surmised form the following facts that they were related to the last 'Ariga-janta' Dharsenācārya of Digambera tradition. There are words like 'kevaljñān', 'mukti se jaramarana", etc. used in the inscription and there are paintings of famous Jaina good omens such as "swastika", *'bhadrāsana'*, 'minayugal' found on the walls. Vīrasenacharya the author of *DhavalāŢikā* has called Dharasenachārya as resident of Candragufā (see Mahabandha part 2 foreward). One of these caves is annexed with a half moon shaped backyard. In this respect because of its similarity to Bhaja, Karla and Nashika Buddha caves, this is assumed to be a Buddha cave, even then it may not be surprising if this itself be the Caridragufā of Dharasenachārya as referred to by Dhavalākāra. (See Antiquities of Kutcchha and Kāthiāwāda 1874-75, p. 139, by Verjesa, and Archeology of Gujarat, by Sankalia). In this area there are also caves in a place called Dhanka. There are idols of R sabha, Parśva, Mahāvīra and other Tīrthankarās in these caves. All these caves are proved to be of *Ksatrapa* period meaning the first and second century AD. The reference to Dthanka Mountain is found in many places in Jaina literature. Nagarjuna, disciple of Padaliptasūrī is said to be a resident of this place. (See *Prabandhakośa* and *Vividhatīrthakalpa* by *Rājaśekhara*).

After Udayagiri Khandagiri in the east and *Junāgarha* in the west, caves situated in Udayagiri in the central part of the country are famous. This Udayagiri is situated two-three miles away in northwest of historically famous the city of *Vidiśā* on the opposite bank of the river Vetava. On these mountains there are 20 caves and temples marked and numbered by the archeological department. Among these the first one on

the west side and the 20th on the east side are clearly Jaina caves. The first cave is named 'Jhuthi gufā' (false cave) by Cunningdham, because it is not carved out of rock but is a natural cave. There by making ceiling out of the upper rock and placing four pillars, it is made to look like a cave-temple. The pillars are solid and made as per 'patrāvlī' style. As said earlier, the Jaina monks were making such natural caves their dwellings. In this respect this cave also would be a Jaina monks' cave since B.C. period. But it could have been formalized in Gupta period as is evident from the art of the pillars etc. and an inscription dug out from this cave. In this inscription there is a reference to Candragupta. This could be understood as Gupta emperor Candragupta the second. From this its time can be fixed as the end of the fourth century A.D. A very auspicious and beautiful idol of Lord Parsvanātha Tīrtharikara is sitting there in the east side of 20th cave. Now it is much broken. But its expanded hood of cobra still manifests the art in it. Here also a sanskrit inscription written in poetry has been dug out. According to which the consecration of the idol was done by Śankara the disciple of Bhadrānvi Ācārya Gośarmā muni in Gupta Samvat 106 (426 A.D. Kumārgupta period) on the fifth day of the dark fortnight of kārtika month. This Śankara has mentioned Kurudeśa in north India as his birthplace.

According to the Jaina historical tradition the last 'Srutkevali' (omniscient) Bhadrabahu lived during Maurya emperor Candragupta's period (fourth century B.C.). And when there was a norrible famine for 12 years in north India, he went to south India taking the Jaina community with him. There he established a Jaina center in Śravanabelagolā in the state of Mysore. That time the emperor Candrag upta renounced his kingdom and became his disciple; and he did penance on that mountain of Śravanabelagolā, which is known Candragiri after his name. There is aso an ancient temple on this mountain which is called Candragupta Basti after his name. On this mountain there is an ordinary small cave which is famous as 'Bhadrabāhu's cave'. It is said that, Shrutkevali Bhadrabāhu Swami died in this cave. His footprints are marked there and are worshipped. This is proved to be the most ancient Jaina cave in South and prevalance of Jaina religion is found there since very ancient times. 'Sangama Yuga' is considered to be the most ancient part of the Tamil literature. Almost all the principal and laading works like Tirukurul and others in the Tamil literature of that period are greatly influenced by Jaina or Jaina literature. Association of Jaina *Dravida* Snagha is also a very ancient or Ganization. So it is natural that remains of ancient Jaina culture are also found in this area. One ancient center of Jaina monks called 'Sittannavāsala' is a place situated in northwest direction 9 miles away from Pādukottai. This name of the place seems to be a derivative of the name 'Siddhanam Vasah'. Here one Jaina cave situated in the large rocky hills is very important. One inscription written in Brahmī script is also found here. This could be of 3rd century B.C. (Aśoka period). Lis clearly mentioned in the inscriptin that the cave was made for the purpose of Jaina monks. This cave is very large. It is 100 x 50 ft. There are several cells in it in which 'samādhi-śilā' (rock slabs) are made. These slabs are 6 x 4 ft. This cave is important from architecture point of view. Its art of painting is even much more important. The cave was formalized during the period of Pallave king Mahendravarman (8th century A.D.).

The Jaina caves of Bādāmī in south India are worth mentioning. Its construction period is approximately middle of 7th century. This cave is 31 ft. long and 19 ft. broad. In the center of back portion there is a temple. And cells for residing for monks are made in the walls of the three sides. The shapes of pillars are similar to those of Elephanta caves. Here together with main idol of Lord Mahāvīra in 'padmāsana' posture several other Jaina 'dols' are sculptured in the walls and the pillars. It is believed that the king of Rāṣṭrakuṭa Amogavarṣa stayed in this cave after renouncing his kingdom and becoming a Jaina monk. In the corridors of the cave there are 71/2ft. tall images of Lord Parśvanātha and Bāhubalī carved on either side.

There are some caves in the east and the north near the village Bhola in Bādāmī district. Jaina idols are also found here. The construction of the main caves is similar to those of Bādāmī cave. The cave is divided into 'barāmadā' (corridors or galleries), 'manḍapa' (hall), and 'garbhagriha' (the central hall with the idol). There are four pillars in the corridors and shapes of fish, flowers etc. are sketched on the ceiling. One the right

wall there is an idol of Lord Parśvanātha and on one side of the idol there is a male cobra and on the other side a female cobra. On the left wall a Jaina-idol is made under a 'Caitya'-tree. The Parśvanātha idol with thousand cobra hoods of this cave is important from the art point of view. Other Jaina shapes and symbols also exist there in large quantity. The shaps of lion, fish and doorkeepers are also artistic and remind us of those of Elephanta caves. In the east of the caves there is a Jaina temple called Meguti, in which there is an inscription with reference to Cālukya king Pulakeśī and Śaka samvanta 556 (634 A.D.) This inscription is of special importance with reference to the development of Sanskrit petry style. The author of this inscription Ravikirti has compared himself with Kālidāsa and Bhāravī in the field of poetry. This inscription, in fact, is very helpful in determining the period of Kālidāsa and Bhāravī, and because of this the final decision of their time is determined. Perhaps 'Ehole' namely 'Cotā Kailāśa', 'Indrasabhā', and 'Jagannātha sabha' are more important from art point of view. The cave 'Cotā Kailāśa' is carved out of one single rock. Its construction is a replica of the original Kaïlāśa temple on a smaller scale. The whole temple is 80 ft. broad and 130 ft. high. The 'mandapa' (hall) is about 36 ft. in length and breadth, and there are 16 pillars in it. The construction of *Indrasabhā* cave temple is of the following type. Entering the gate made out of the rocks one comes into a 50 x 50 ft. courtyard. In the center of the courtyard there is a 'caitya' temple made of rocks constructed in 'drāvidi' style. In fron of it on the right side there is an idol of an elephant, and on the left there is a 32 ft. tall flag-post. Turning from here and going towards the backside, one finds a two storied assembly hall, which is famous as Indrasabhā. Plenty of paintings are made on both the stories. The lower story seems to be incomplete. This proves that the engraving in the caves proceeded from above to below. The upper hall is decorated with 12 nicely engraved pillars. Large idols of Lord Mahāvīra are on the both sides of the hall. And idols of Indra and elephant are at the back of the hall. On one of the outer wall of *Indrasabhā* there is a beautiful and lively engraving of Parśvanātha, depicting his penance and the obstacles created by Kamatha. Parśvanātha is meditating in 'kāyotsarga' posture, above him is a shade of seven-hooded cobra and a female cobra is holding an umbrella. Two other female cobras are seen with expressions of surprise and sadness. On one side the demon with fearful expression and weapons riding on a buffalo is ready to attack. On the other side one man and a woman are seen in worshipping pose with folded hands. On the south wall a Bāhubalīidol surrounded by vines is engraved. All these and several other decorative figures are beautifully artistic. Presumably the construction of *Indrasabhā* is made in the memory of the celebration of birth of *Tīrthaṅkara* when Indra comes riding on his Airavata elephant to give holy bath to the Lord. Mr. Percy Brown has remarked that the construction of this cave is so perfect and exhaustive and the dexterity of art is so supreme that comparable is not found in any other temple of $Ellor\bar{a}$. The engraving of figures on the walls and the settings of pillars are so skillfully done that its parallel can not be found in any other place.

Near *Indrasabhā* there is a 'Caityālaya' called *Jagannātha Sabhā* whose setting is similar to *Indrasabhā*, but smaller in proportion. The arched gateway is artistic. Lord Mahāvīra idol in 'padmāsana' posture is placed on the throne. Plenty of various kinds of beautiful images are made on the walls and pillars. Even being beautiful in its own form, the supreme elegance, and the harmony seen in *Indrasabhā* is not seen here or anywhere. These were made in about 800 A.D. By this time reaching its climax, the development of not only constructing independent temple took its place.

Jaina Temple

The development of 'vāstukalā' (Indian art and technology of architecture) is found first in the construction of 'stūpa' then in caves, 'caitya' and 'vihāra and then after in the construction of temples. Above we saw how the development of 'stūpa' and caves took place in the Jaina tradition. But the 'vāstukalā' obtained its climax only in the construction of temples. The outstanding examples of these temples are found during 11th century and thereafter. Noticing the manifestation of the skill of the design and the sculpture it becomes clear that without its longstanding earlier tradition the production of these temples was not possible. We have seen the climax of the art of making cave-temples by carving out of rocks in the caves of Ellorā. It

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can be said that the tradition of building independent temples begun based on this. But there is a big difference between that art and the sculpture of independent structural temples. Several centuries must have passed in its development. In this respect lack of availability of temples built before this period is painful.

Plenty of references to Jaina 'āyātana' (place of worship), 'caityagriha', 'bimba' and 'pratima' (images and idols), and 'tīrtha' are found in Jaina scriptures (Kundakunda: Bodhapāhuḍa, 62 etc.). It is customary as per Digambara tradition to worship in their daily routine prayers these 'siddha' (scared) places from where the Jaina Tīrthankara and other monks have obtained 'nirvana'.

Indication or marks of the most ancient Jaina temple are found in *Lohānipura* near *Patanā* in *Bihār*. Here evidences of artifacts of Kumhār and Bulandibāga of Maurya period are found. Here a foundation of Jaina temple is found. This temple had area of 810 sq.ft. The bricks used here are proved to be of maurya period. Also a silver coin belonging to Maurya period, and two headless Jaina-idols are found. There are not lying safely in *Patanā* museum.

The most ancient Jaina temple outline is safe at present and whose time of construction is also definite is a Jaina temple called Meghuti in Aihola near $B\bar{a}d\bar{a}m\bar{\iota}$. According to the rock inscription obtained from there, it was built by Raokirti in $\hat{S}aka$ samvat 556 (634 A.D.) during the reign of western $C\bar{a}lukya$ king Pulakes $\bar{\imath}$ the second.

Three styles of architectural art are mentioned in the technical books of architecture of the time after the period of Gupta and Cālukya, viz. Nagar. Dravida style in south from river Kṛṣṇā to Kanyākumāri, and the Vesar style in central India between Vindhya mountain and Kṛṣṇā tiver. But this geographical rule is not strictly adhered to. Almost temples of all styles are found in all the regions. Even then to understand the speciality of paintings etc. these divisions of the styles are proved to be helpful. Even though in the technical books very minute details of settings, construction and decoration are mentioned, their clear and distinct division is found in the construction of the dome. The dome of Magar style is of circular shape and a figure of 'kalaśa' (jug) is made at the top. In the beginning possibly this type of dome was made only on a 'vedi' (place to offer sacrifices) but gradually it extended even up to the ceiling of the whole temple. This shape of dome is considered more ancient and more important than the others. Different from this, the temple of Dravida style takes the shape of a pillar and gets thinner all around and at the top takes a shape of a mini 'stūpa'. Such mini *'stūpās'* and peak like shapes are made in the corners of the lower floors also. Because of this the outer shape of the temple is seen full of peaks. The shape of the peak of the Vesara style is circular and remains flat at the top. This makes it look like a barre. This style clearly follows the shape of ancient shapes of the 'caityta'. Hindu and Jaina temples of the succeeding period are made as per these styles, and particularly as per nagar and Dravida styles.

Meghuti Jaina temple of Aihola can be said to be the most ancient temple of *Dravida* style. Another Jaina temple of this style is situated one mile away from the town of Pattadakala in the west. There is no engraving of any kind in it and the countryard is also not complete. But the construction of the peak is clearly of *Dravida* style in which, it gets smaller in stages as it rises higher. The same type and shape of the border is manifested in each of the gradually higher going stage. A beautiful 'stūpikā' (mini 'stūpa') is made at the top. The time of the construction of this temple is also 7th/8th century. The same style is also found in the construction of the famous chariots of *Māmallapura* situated on the seashore 32 miles south of Madras. These are also the production of this time.

Further progress of *Dravida* style is seen in complete or ruined state in many Jaina temples in several places in south at present. *Huvanca* near *Tīrthahally* has been an ancient Jaina center. There is a mention of a Jain temple of that place in an inscription of 897 A.D. But many temples of that place are found to be constructed by Virasanter and other kings of Santer dynasty during 11th century. There the powerful effect of

the same *Dravida* style, the same type of decorative skill and beautifully engraved pillars, which were the speciality of that time, is seen. The temple of Ādinātha near the Jaina *maţha* is especially noteworthy. It is a two storied building. At present for some time the upper portion is covered with sheets. Very superior images are engraved on the outer wall. But they are very much worn out and broken. Even now the dome of the temple can be seen by going to the second floor. There is a good collection of bronze idols made in South Indian style, in this temple. A Bāhubalī temple is situated in dilapidated condition in the hill near this temple. But even now the 'garbhagriha' (central hall), 'sukhanasi', 'mandapa', the beautiful stain-way, and the beautiful idol inside the templeare worth seeing. Outside the town in the north there is a temple called 'Panchakoot Basti' that gives full presentation of the art of that time. Reaching the countryard through a small door we see a huge pillar. Beautiful paintings are made on it in large quantity. Further one can reach the central hall of the main temple through a 'mandapa' full of pillars. Paintings and images of Jaina goddesses are also found in this 'mandapa'. There are two comparatively small walls in the central hall on both the sides. In the north of this temple there is a small Parśvanātha-temple. There we can see the wonderful and the most superior form of the paintings of the South Indian style. In the front of this temple there is a Candranātha temple. Comparatively this was built later.

On the road to *Tīrthahalli* from Agumbe there is a more than 3000 ft. high mountain called Gudda. Many ruins are seen on its top. These ruins prove that it was an ancient place of Jama pilgrimage. Even now there is a beautiful Parśvanātha-temple on the hill. This temple gives an air of grandiose to the extensive mountains and the fertile ravines in the surroundings. This temple is situated on the bank of a natural water reservoir. The gate is beautifully engraved. In the front is the main pillar. The pillars of the central hall are also with paintings. There is a bid idol of Parśvanātha in 'kāyotsarga' posture in the main hall. A huge cobra entwines the idol and makes a shade of seven-fold hood over it. Two of the cobra's encircle over the body of the idol are seen very distinctly. Such is not seen in other places. Going down the mountain we come across ruins of Jaina temples. Pretty idols of *Tīrtharīkara* and broken rocks with paintings and engravings are found scattered all over. This gives an overview of the ancient rich history of the place.

There is a town named Lakundi (Lokki Gundi) seven miles away in southeast from Gadag railway station in Dharavada. There are two beautiful Jaina temples in the town. There is an inscription of 1172 A.D. in the bigger temple. Like the temples of Aihole and Pattadakala these are also built with big rocks, without lime and cement. The *Dravidi* style peak wing higher in several stages is very clear. Here instead of rough sandstone, smooth black stones are used. And because of this change there is more subtlety and elegance in the sculpture. The boundaries of the gradually rising higher terraces are also with more subtlety and elegance. The construction of topes on the corners in between has added a new phase of art, which has gradually developed very much in the coming time. There is an idol of *Tirtharikara* on the upper floor also in the central hall. And the pead portion is very high creating a special effect of grandeur. A special harmony is seen in the making of the 'stūpa' of the peak. Special paintings are seen on the walls. Creation of masked faces on smallarced recesses is a new art, which was probably not seen, in the earlier creations. In each recess, there is one engraved 'Jina' idol in 'Padmasana' posture. Walls are separated by shapes of pillars. Among them at certain interval, shapes of small 'mandapa' are made. There was a very beautiful idol of Lord Mahāvīra sitting in here. Unfortunately this is lost in some recent years. On the wall of inner 'mandapa' an inscription is engraven. Above that there is a 'Jina' idol in 'Padmāsana' posture, and on its both sides moon and sun are shown. This Jaina temple of Lakundi has greatly influenced the Dravida architecture.

We have seen how the *Dravida* architecture developed in *Cālukya* period. Then after, during the period of Hoysala dynesty more speciality and elegance were produced in it. And its characteristic is eminence in the style of decoration. The architecture of this period has not only extended the earlier art of rock engraving but also is influenced by the contemporary south Indian art of producing artifacts of sandalwood, ivory and metal. As a result of this influence the chisel of the artisan has worked with more dexterity. This dexterity can

be clearly seen in the jain temples of Jinanāthapura and Halebida. Jinanāthapura is one mile north from Śravanabelgola. The name of the town signifies that it is popular for the Jain temples. Here the temple of Lord Śāntinātha is noteworthy. This was built by a gentleman by the name of Rechimayya in the year 1200 A.D. (aprox.), and was given to SāgarNaridīSiddhāntadeo. The status of the doorkeerpers in the main hall are also worth seeing. Very beautiful and fine paintings are seen on the pillars. Engravings on the ceilings are also worth seeing. Sketches of flowers and leaves are engraved in abundance on the outer walls. And also the images and deities of Tīrthankera and angles are made very pretty. Also the idol of Lord Śāntinātha seating on the throne is made very skillfully.

There are three Jaina temples in one countryard in the village named Halli near the temple of Hoysaleshvara in Halebida. Here the temple of Parśvanātha is noteworthy. Very beautiful sketches are made on the inner and outer walls of the temples. There are several small altars complete with peaks in the main 'mandapa'. The idols of 24 Tīrtharikara might be seating there earlier. The paintings of the ceiling are so beautiful that possibly such can not be found anywhere in the whole of Halebida. This ceiling is suported by 12 very beautifully shaped black stone pillars. The construction, engraving, and neatness of the pillars are worth observing. The polishing is so good that one can see ones own face in it like a mirror. The idol of Lord Parśvanātha is 14 ft. high and is covered with seven-fold cobra hood. The facial expressions of the idol are those of a true meditating monk radiating blissful peace. The other two temples also have their own beauty. All these temples are creations of 12th century.

After the Hoysal period, the period of Vijayanagar kingdom begins during which the *Dravida* art of architecture developed further. specimens of Jaina creations of this period are found in plenty in the places like Gaṇīgitti, *Tirūparuttikundarama*, Tiruppanamura, Mudabidri and others. Out of them Caṅdranātha temple of Mudabidri is the most famous at present. This was created in the 14th century. This temple is within a countryard. As soon as you enter through the door, you see the very beautiful pillar of honour. There are three continuous 'mandapa' halls, through which one can enter the main hall with the peak. The three 'mandapa' are named *Tīrtharikara mandapa*, *Gaddi mandapa*, and *Citra mandapa*. The outside shape of the temple reminds you of wooden construction, but the whole inner fabrication is of stones. The pillars are very thick and some are even 12 ft. high. The lower parts of the pillars are square but the upper parts are circular (round) and spiral and decorated with figures of lotus petals. The pillars of *Citra mandapa* are specially engraved. On them the group of lotus are engraved with extraordinary skill and care.

The first mention of a Jaina 'vihāra' (a place of learning and worshiping) is found in a copper of Gupta period (Vikram year 159, 472 A D) found in *Pahādapurā*, in district Rājashāhi, W. Bengal. There is a mention of a permanent or eternal donation made for the purpose of worship and adoration in a 'vihāra' temple governed by the family Guru Shramanācārya Guha*Nandī* and his disciples and students. As per the inscription the location of this 'vihāra' is in Bat-Gohali. It can be concluded that it can be the same 'vihāra' that came to light during excavation in *Pahādpura*. Some time after 7th century the control of this 'vihāra' was taken over by Buddhists. And it became famous in the name of Somapura *Mahavihāra*. But no mention of this 'vihāra' is found in the travelogue of 7th century Chinese traveler Hu-Bn-Tsang. So it is clear that it did not become a Buddhist center till that time. It is proved by the said copper inscription that a Jaina 'vihāra' existed there in the 5th century, and its ancient name was vat-Gohali. It is possible that at time there was a huge Banyan tree (vat), and around it there could have been rows (avali) of caves (gufā) suitable for Jaina monks to stay. Based on this combination (vat-gufā-avali), the place was named as vat-Gohali. Very learned commentator of Ṣatkhardāgama Virasen and Jinasen were Ācārya of this vihāra. Therefore this Jaina 'vihāra' could have been a great ceter of learning.

There are more than 175 cave shaped rooms in all the four directions. There is a big door in each of the four directions of the countryard. And right in the center there is a 'sarvatobhadra' temple in swastika shape.

This is about 350 feet long and broad. There is a path going round the temple. Temple has three floors out of which two floors are clearly seen. Experts believe that the construction of this temple is unique. It is compared with pagoda of Burma and Loro Jongrang and other temples of Java. But it is very clear that there is a regular Jaina tradition of four faced temples. This can be seen in the 'Cowmukht' (four faced) temple in $\bar{A}b\bar{u}$.

In central India we can see two ancient places of Jaina *Tirtha*. These have been famous for centuries. Progressively more and more temples have been constructed and idols have been established, and the towns have become 'Deonagara' (city of God). The first place is Deogadha. It is on the bank of river Betava, 19 miles from railway station Lalitpura and 9 miles away from station Jalaona in the district of Jhansi. The mountain range of Deogadha is about one mile long and six furlongs wide. Climbing up the mountain one can see the ruins of the fort. The stonework of this is worth seeing. In the fort there are two more courts. In these one can see several temples in ruin condition. Some are Hindu temples but more are Jaina temples, 31 have been counted. Inscriptions have been found on the idols, pillars, walls, rocks etc. Based on these inscriptions the construction period or the temples is established as 8th to 12th centuries.

The other temple city of central India is Khajurāho. It is situated 27 miles north of Panna and 34 miles south of Mahova in the district of Chhatarpura. The number of $\dot{S}iva$, Visnu, and Jaina temples is more than 30. Among the Jaina temples three are expecially noteworthy. They are Parśvanātha, Adinātha, and Šāntinātha. The first Parśvanātha is the biggest among them. It is 68 ft. long and 34 ft. wide. Its front 'manḍapa' is ruined. But its 'mahāmandapa', 'antarala' and the 'garbhagriha' (main hall) are saved and are surrounded by the same road for 'pradaksinā' (walking round a revered place or idol). At a little distance behind the main hall a separate 'devālaya' (small temple) is made. This is a pecularity of this temple. In the inner side of the same road for 'pradakṣinā' wall there is a pillar that supports the ceiling. There is a small lattic window in the wall for light. The perforations in the ceiling are of very superior style. There pendant in the center of ceiling is decorated with flowers, leaves, and flying human images. A beautiful idol of goddess Saraswatī with ten arms and riding an eagle is placed in the entrance. The images of fairies on the outer walls of the main hall are so beautiful that they are considered the best in the category. On the north side, the female images in action of nursing a child, writing a letter, taking out a thron from the sole, and doing make-up are so very lively and artistic that it is difficult to find similar art in any other place. All these depictions are of common day to day happenings of life and are not religious. This is the peculiarity of the artifacts of this temple. On the lower part of the outermost wall there are some artistic inscriptions and on the upper part very beautiful images of Tirtharikara and Hindu god and goddesses are made in several lines. In this way we find a wonderful coordination of different religions and of religion and day to day worldly life in this temple. The altar in the main hall is made in a very pretty shape and is inscribed with an image of a bull. From this it can be believed that the original chief of this 'emple should be Tīrtharkara R sabhanātha, because 'vrisabha' the bull is his insignia. It can be surmised that the original idol was destroyed some time and thereafter the present idol of Parśvanātha was established in its place. Compared to the superior artistic construction of the temple and the throne the idol is lesser artistic. This also proves the above assumption. Similar condition is that of the Adinatha temple. There also the existing idol of Adinātha is smaller compared to the throne and is ordinary from the art point of view. This temple is situated in the north near the Parśvanātha temple. Here also there are halls as described earlier. One of the halls 'arddhmandapa' was constructed much later. There is an idol of a goddess with four arms in the entrance. And there are symbols of 16 dreams inscribed above it. The 15 feet high idol of Tīrthankara Sāntinātha is the peculiarity of Sāntinātha temple. Its establishment year Vikram Samvat (1028 A.D.) is inscribed there. The temple could have been constructed a little earlier than that. The construction period of remaining temples also could be around that time. Apart from this idol, other idols of Tirtharikara and god and goddess are also artistic. Mostly on both the sides of Tirthankara idols, images of two flapper bearers, in the front, images of two female worshipers, and a little above the idols on both the sides, images of Indra and Indrani riding on elephants are seen. And on the back on the both sides images of lions are seen.

This whole complex of temples of Khajurāho is fully decorated from bottom to the peak by varieties of artistic engravings of images. The peculiarity of Jaina temples of Khajurāho is that, the construction of the 'sikhara' (the peak) is given more importance than the 'mandapa'. There are no other distinguishing features in the construction and decoration apart from the Jina idols that makes them different from the other Hindu and Buddha temples. It seems a thoughtful similarity is maintained because of being constructed under the protection and patronage of a generous and tolerant king. But the opinion of Mr. James Ferguson with respect to two other temples in this area is worthy of taking note. He has said the following about 'bhāmiti' and 'deokulika' of the temple of 64 'yogini'. "I have no doubt about Jain origin of this temple considering the extent of Jain attributes in the construction of the templs". Now this central temple is not there. And there can be no surprise, if it was made of wood similar to ancient Buddha 'caitya', as per the opinion of Mr. Ferguson. And if this is true, then this will be proved to be the most ancient Jaina temple. Similarly he also ascepts the remaining 'mandapa' of ghanţāi temple as Jain, based on its construction style. Based upon the script of the broken inscription obtained from there, Mr. Curindham has estimated it to be of 6-7th century. And Mr. Ferguson also concludes the same period based upon its style.

There is a 'manḍapa' of a broken Jain temple in Gyarasapura 140 miles southwest of *Vidiśā* in Gwalior State. This is very similar to *Ghantāi* 'manḍapa' of *Khajurāho* in its layout and construction of pillars etc. Mr. Ferguson has estimated its construction period as 7th century or definitely before 10th century. There is one more temple possibly of the same period in this town of Gyaraspura. This is in such dilapidated condition, and its restoration is due in such a way that its total originality is covered. In this town, also there is a very beautiful stone arched gateway, possibly of 11th century. Very precisely as per opinion of Mr. Ferguson, there exists in that whole area so many ruins, that a methodical compilation and research can bring about fulfillment of large gaps in the history of Indian architecture and especially of Jaina architecture.

There are three more Jaina places of worship and pilgrimage in Madhya Pradeśa, where in several ancient temples have been built on hills. And even till today the activity of building new temples is continuing uninterrupted. One such 'tirth' is Swarnagiri or Sonagiri near Datiya in Bundelkhanda. Here on a lower hill about 100 Jaina temples of small and big and of various sizes are built. They do not seem to be very ancient from the condition in which they exist today. Effect of Muslim style on them is clearly seen. Their peaks are mostly of the dome shape of Mogul period. Rarely a peak of ancient indigenous from is seen. The open parts look like the Muslim style angular arched gateway. Although its history is not clear as to when, why and how the ancient temples were constructed; some of the facts can be compiled from the studies of these temples, idols and inscriptions.

The second place of pilgrimage is Muktagiri in Beitool. Here on a plateau of a very beautiful mountain range there are some 20-25 Jaina temples. In the middle of these temples there is a60 feet high waterfall. Particularly in monsoon this scene is very beautiful. These temples also like Sonagiri are not very ancient. And they also follow the Muslim style with respect to the peaks etc. But from the inscriptions on the idols it can be known that there must be some temples here in 14th century. In his book history of Indian and Eastern Architecture (London, 1876), Mr. James Ferguson has said, "It is difficult to find another such beautiful place in the whole of India, where the architecture and the elegance of nature are in perfect harmony with each other".

The third Jaina 'tīrtha' of Lord Mahāvīra built in a valley in the middle of the particularly famous for its greatness, ancientness, and reverence. It is called temple of "Baḍe Bābā" because of the very big idol of Lord Mahāvīra known as 'Baḍe Bābā'. The first temple on the hills is also important from the point of view of its beauty and architecture. It is called 'chaha dhāriā' (six leveled) temple because of six floors of its peak. Similar to earlier mentioned places of pilgrimage, here also the effect of Mogul style is seen. The splendor of the lake in the foothills and the new temples built on its bank is also worth seeing.

There are three-four Jaina temples in a town named *Oona* ten miles west of district town Kharagauna in Madhya Pradeśa. One of them is on a hill. This has been properly restored and has become a good pilgrimage place. The remaining temples are in the state of ruins and are in the care of department of archeology. Temples are completely built with stones, having flat ceiling and main hall and 'sabhāmanḍapa' buti without 'pradakṣina'. This proves its ancientness. The exhaustive engraving on the walls and pillars is similar to the art of Khajurāho temples. Two temples having four doors are called 'caubara derā'. Some of the malefemale images are very beautifully embellished and are completely safe. In inscriptions on some of the images mention of the Vikram year 1258 is found. Therefore this 'tūrtha' belongs to 12-13th century.

After Madhya Pradeśa, our attention goes to the temples of Rajasthan. A broken part of a pillar is found in the village of Badli near Ajmer. This was used by a 'pujārī' (preiest) of a temple of Bhairaonji for crushing tobacco. This is a piece of an octagonal stone pillar of which three sides are safe. On this there is an inscription engraved in an area of 13 x 10 inches. As per experts opinion its script is even ancient than he scripts used during Aśoka period. It is in *Prākrit* language. The following can be clearly read. "For Lord Mahāvīra or of Lord Mahāvīra after 84 years something was constructed in *Madhyāmikā*". From this it can be deducted that 84 years after nirvān of Lord Mahāvīra (443 B.C.) a 'mandapa' or a 'caityālaya' (temple) was built in that very ancient and historically famous city of *Madhyāmikā*.

There are several ancient Hindu and Jaina temples outside the town of Osian near the railway station, 32 miles west north from Jodhapur. Among them temple of Lord Mahāvīra is considered even now a place of pilgrimage. This temple is built inside a courtyard. Along the courtyard there are several rooms. The shape of the temple is very beautiful. Especially the workmanship of the pillars of the 'mandapa' is worth seeing. The construction of the peak etc. is that of 'nāgara' style. There is a stone inscriptin that gives the following information. The temple of Lord Mahāvīra existed during the time of king Vatsaraja (father of NāgaBhaṭṭa the second, 770-800 A.D.). Its 'mahāmandapa' was built in 926 A.D. Some construction went on even after that time, but it did not destroy its original form. Its artistic equilibrium is maintained and is of historical importance.

There are two more places worth noting in Mārawār. There are several Hindu and Jaina temples belonging to 11th to 16th century in the village of Sādadi near Fālanā railway station. At present the more important Jain temple is surrounded by several Jaina 'dharmaśālā' (free or cheap lodges). This temple is also of the same earlier said style and the peaks are also made in 'nāgara' style. There is a Jain temple called Naulakha near Mārawār Pali station on Mārawār-Jodhpur railway line. This was built by Alhanadeo in Samvat 1218 (1161 A.D.). But in scriptions dated Samvat 1144 5o 1201 are found on the idols of Tīrtharikara in this temple. This proves that there should have been an older temple earlier than this temple in the same place.

Next we come to the Jaina temples of $\bar{A}b\bar{u}$. Here we can see not only the Jaina art but also the Indian art of architecture in its paramount developed form. These Jaina temples are situated in Dilwada about one mile from $\bar{A}b\bar{u}$ and about 18 miles from $\bar{A}b\bar{u}road$ railway station. There are five temples built within a rampart on a mountain 4-5 thousand feet above the sea level near the town. They are called Vimal Vasahi, Loon Vasahi, Pitalanara, Caumukha, and Mahāvīra Swami temples. On the other side of the road laading to these temples there is a Digambar Jaina temple. The first two among all these temples are the most superior from the point of view of art. The producer and author of the temple Vimal Vasahi was Vimalšāha Porawār, who was the first minister and army commander of the king Bhimadeo the first of $C\bar{a}lukya$ dynesty. He had no son. As per ancient records he spent colossal amount of wealth and covered that land with gold coins to purchase it. He built $T\bar{v}tharkara$ Ādinātha temple on this land. This temple is fully built with white marble. As per bottom to the top of the high mountain by elephants. A four feet three inches big idol of $T\bar{v}tharkara$ Ādinātha in 'padmāsana' posture was cast in gold mixed brass alloy was established. This was done in Somanātha.

This idol is found to be famous as '*Prauḍha Dādā*' (adult grand father). The temple was damaged twice, which was restored by descendant of Vimalshāha, in Vikram Samvat 1206, 1245, and 1368.

In front of this temple is the temple of Loon Vasahi. This is also called Temple of Neminātha, because Neminātha being the chief idol in this temple. This was built by two brothers Tejpal and Vastūpal who were ministers of the king Vir Dhavala of vaghela dynesty of Dholka in the year 1232 A.D. Because it was built in the memory of Loonsingh, the son of minister Tejpal, it became famous in his name. The layout and the construction of this temple are very similar to the temple of Ādinātha. Here also exist the similar type of courtyard, pantheon, and rows of 'mandapa' and pillars.

Great experts and art critics are flabbergasted seeing the artistic workmanship of the marble in these two temples. India will always hold its head high with pride in the field of art because of the superlative quality of art exhibited here by the Indian craftsmen. Here chisel did not work. All the work was done by rubbing and polishing the marble to bring about the fineness and glasslike transparency and polish, which was not possible by chisel. It is said that the craftsmen were paid on the basis of the marble powder they created. In words of Mr. H. Zimmer, "the mansion has taken the form of the jewelry that is not possible to explain in words". Only after looking at these temples one can experience the beauty of the wonderful artin it. It is not possible to imagine it without seeing it.

Behind Loon Vasahi there is a Jaina temple called *Pitalahara*. This was built by Bhimashah of Gurjar dynasty in the middle of 15th century. In one inscription dated V.S. 1483 there is a mention of some land and villages given in charity. In another inscription dated V.S. 1489, it is said that king of $\bar{A}b\bar{u}$, Rajadhara Devada Chunda had for ever set free the pilgrims coming for pilgrimage to these three temples viz. Vimalvasahi, Loonvasahi and Pitalhara, from paying taxes. This temple is called Pitalhara because the idol of the chief god Ādinātha *Tīrtharikara* is made of metal 'pitala' (brass) weighing about 1600 kilograms. This idol was established in V.S. 1525 by two persons named Sunder and Gada. According to the poem Guru-guna-ratnaker these two were ministers of that time Sultan Mahamuda Begada of Ahmadabad. For some reasons the previously established idol was shifted from here to a place called Kumbhala Meru in Mevar. The construction of this temple is similar to that of the earlier said two temples. The original 'garbhasangraha', 'guḍhhamanḍapa' and 'nav-chowki' are complete, but 'rang-manḍapa' and 'bhāmiti' are left somewhat incomplete. There is a 'panctīrthaka' stone idol of Ādinātha, and some idols of other *Tīrtharikara* in the 'guḍhhamanḍapa'. Particularly noteworthy is a yellow stone idol of Principal Ganadhara Gautama.

And on each floor there is one 'chaturmukhi' idol of Lord Parśvanātha is seated. The fifth Mahāvīra temple is three and half miles away in east north direction from Dilwārā. This was also constructed in the 15th century. At present its chief god is Lord Ādinātha. One both its sides there are idols of Lord Parśvanātha and Lord Šāntinātha. But the temple is famous with the name of Lord Mahāvīra. The temple is situated in the center of a rampart. There is also a 'guḍhhamanḍapa' with a peak in front of 'garbhagriha'. There is an open platform in front of it. Buther, a 'navacowki' and a 'sabhāmanḍapa' could not be built on this platform or were made but subsequently destroyed.

The Digambar Jain temple of $Dilw\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ is on the main road going to Acalaghadh. According to an inscription of this temple in V.S. 1494 Govinda Sangatipati together with Bhaṭṭārak ShubhaCaridra, disciple of Bhaṭṭārak Padmanandī of $Saraswat\bar{\imath}$ Gachchha, came here for pilgrimage; and he got this temple built. At that time king Rajadhara Devdā was ruling in $\bar{A}b\bar{u}$.

One more noteworthy Jaina temple of Rajasthana is that of *Ranakapura* in Godwad district in the kingdom of Jodhapura. This was built in 1439 A.D. This huge four-faced temple is built over 40000 square feet area. It has 29 'mandapa' with 420 pillars. The construction and architecture of all the pillars are different and each is unique. The shape of the temple is square. The main temple is in the center and there are four

other temples in its four directions. Over and above the peaks of these temples, there are peaks of 'manḍapa' and also individual peak of 86 surrounding 'deokulika'. This configuration looks very impressive from a distance. The beauty and the equilibrium of the peaks are very attractive, and this is true about its internal artifacts also. There is a wonderful harmony of diversity and unanimity all around. A visitor entering the temple is astonished by the wonderful exposition of light and shadow, diffusing through the 'manḍapa', its pillars and open spaces. The main 'garbhagriha is of the shape of swastika, and there are four doors in its four directions. Here a 'chaturmukhi' idol of white marble of Ādinātha is established. This is a two-storied temple, and it has the same construction on the second floor also. The layout of this 'chowmukhi' temple is similar to that of Mahavihāra of Pahāḍpura.

One more beautiful and artistic produce of Rajasthan is *kirti stambh* (pillar of glory) in *Cittauda*. There is lot of difference of opinion about its period of construction. But recently an inscription written in V.S. 154 (1484 A.D.) is found on a metallic idol in a *Digambar* Jaina temple in Nandagaon. According to this inscription, this *kirtistambha* was constructed in front of *ceiyālaya* (temple) of Jinendra Cardraprabhu in the city of Chitrakut of Bhedapat district by Poornasingh, son of Jijashah. This makes it clear that the pillar was constructed before 1484 A.D. in 15th century. Poornasingh son of Jijashah belonged to Badhrawal caste. It is also mentioned in this inscription, that he, as peradvice and preaching of Bhaṭṭāraka Somasen of *Mulasaṅgha*, *Senāgana*, *Puṣkaragacchha* of Karanja (district *Ākolā* Barar), in addition to this pillar, restored 108 temples with peak, got made several Jinabimba (idols), established many *śrutabhandāra* (libraries) and got 1,25,000 prisoners free from prison.

It is clear from the inscription that this pillar was built in front of a Jaina temple. And therefore it is a pillar of honour and glory. It is about 76 feet high, and its base diameter is 31 feet and top diameter is 15 feet. There are seven floors in it. At the top there is a canopy in the form of 'gandhakuty'. This canopy was once destroyed by lightening. But it was restored in its original form by king Fatahasingh spending about 80000. Ther must have been a 'chaturmukhi' Tīrtharkara idol in tras canopy. On all the floors of the pillar all around idols of Lord Ādinātha and other Tīrtharkara are seated. Therefore it seems that this pillar was earlier a memorial of the first Tīrtharkara. The outer construction of the pillar is full of decorations.

There is also a similar *kirti-stambha* (pillar) in the fort of *Cittauda*. This has nine floors. And this is decorated with Hindu gods and goddesses. This was built by Maharāṇā Kumbha much later but as a copy of the earlier prescribed pillar.

The largest number of temples built in one Jaina pilgrimage place is in \hat{S} atrunjaya (Palitana) mountain in S aurā \hat{s} ira. According to the glory story of \hat{S} atrunjaya, temples have been built here from the days of the first T inthankara. The most ancient temple among the now existing ones is the temple built by the same Vimalashāh (11th century) who built the temple V imalavasāh ion mount \hat{A} bū. The second one is built by king Kumārapāl in 12th century. The temple of \hat{A} dinātha is the most important one from the point of view of vastness and artistic beauty. This temple was built in 1530 A.D. But there are evidences available that there was an earlier temple built in 960 A.D. in the same place. An idol of Punderik made in 10th century found here is considered the most beautiful idol. The fourth noteworthy 'chaturmukhi temple is the one that was built in 1618 A.D. It has entrance doors on all the four sides. The east-side door is in front of 'rangamanḍapa'. Also there are 'manḍapa' in front of the other three doors. All these 'manḍapa' are two storied, and have small windows for ventilation on the upper floor. All these temples are more or less on the same pattern of Vimalavasāhi and Loonavasahi of Dilawada in case of construction, sculpture and beauty of 'garbhagriha', 'manḍapa' and 'deokulika'.

The second big pilgrimage place in *Saurāśţra* is *Giranāra*. The ancient name of this mountain is found to be *Oorjayanta and Raivataka Giri*. The name of the town in its valley could have been Girinagar. From this name the mountain itself could have been called Girnar (Girinagar). Historically famous huge rock

inscription is found on the road going from Junagarh towards the mountain. On this, the inscriptions are engraved by Emperors Aśoka, Rudradaman, and Candragupta. In this manner the history of about 1000 years is written on it. There is a Jaina cave near Mathha of Pyara Bābā near Junāgarh. This seems to be the Caridragufā of the first-second century of Dharasenachārya. In this manner this place is proved to be very ancient and important both historical and religious place. There is a prehistorical relationship between Jaina religion and Mount Giranar. The 22nd Jain Tirtharikara Lord Neminatha had done his final penance and attained nivan in this place.

At present the most famous, grand and beautiful temple is that of Lord Neminatha. According to Raivataka Giri-kalpa, this was built by army commander Sajjan of Cālukya king Jaisingh, after gaining victory over kingdom of Khangar in V.S. 1185. The golden covering of the peak was done by Mukhamandana Bhavad of Malwa, and the 'padya' (sopan-path) was built by a person of Śrimāl family who were appointed as commander of Saurāstra by king Kumārpāla, in the year V.S. 1220. The idol was originally plastered, but the plaster worn out with passing of time, then, two brothers Ajit and Ratan who had come there for pilgrimage from *Kāśmīr*, established another new idol in its place. versity

OUESTIONS

Essay Type

- Explain the characteristics of stupa of mathura with reference to composition of chaitya and stupa 1. in jain traditation.
- Write the characteristics of jain caves with reference to khandagiri-udaigiri caves. 2.
- Throw light on development of architecture in jain temples with reference to Indian articheture. 3.

Short answer Type

- Which places were selected for jain monks for their penance and why. 1.
- 2. Write the main characteristics of jain temples.

Objective Type

- Kankali tola was found in Mathura/Girnar. 1.
- 2. In Mathura jains stupa/stupa and literature/literature was found.
- Ancient jain caves are found in hills. 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- The rame of the Mountain is in which Samrat Chandragupta did his perance. 6.
- 7. The art of cave making reaches its peak in
- The sign of the Ancient Jain temple is found in Mathura/Patna. 8.
- The period of ahole shilalekh is 556 A.D. / 634 A.D.
- 10. Ancient Jain temples are found in Ajanta/Khajuraho.

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LESSON 13

SECTION C: HISTORY OF JAIN LITERATURE

Canonical Literature

0.0 Background of Scriptures/Canons

In ancient times, there were no sections like *Digambara* or *Śvetāmbarās* among the Jainas. Hence, there were no differences also on theoretical or conduct-based issues. Both-traditions were followers of the Nirgrantha teaching of Bhagavān Mahāvīra, the son of Jantr lineage and an ascetic. After Mahāvīra, both the sects accept Gautama (the chief disciple) Sudhrmā Svāmī and Jambū-Svāmī. Both of them also accept Bhadrabāhu.¹

It is also learnt from the inscriptions of *Mathurā* (U.P.) belonging to the first century AD that the sects of *Digambara* and *Śvetāmbarās* did not originate by that time.² Besides this, there is a large amount of similarity in the ancient traditional contents and verses in the available literature of both the sects. For example, the expounded subjects-matter and verses of *Digambara* texts like *Bhagavari Ārādhanā* and *Moolācāra* (Basic Conduct) are literally similar in many contexts to the contents and verses of *Santhāraga*, (Death-bed), Bhaṭṭa-parinnā (Renunciation by the Devotee), *Maraṇa-Samāhi* (Equanimity at Death), *Parinnā-Niryukti* (Explanations on Foods), *Āvaśyaka-Niryukti* (Explanations on the Essential Duties) and *Brhat-kalpa-bhāsya* (Commentary on Large or Important Prescriptions) etc. All these indicate that there was only one basic source of both the sects. However, later on, by about the fourth quarter of the first century A.D., there has been a difference of opinion over the issue of specially the salvation with nudity. Further later on both the sects have differing opinions regarding the acceptance of canonical literature. In order to study the canonical literature in detail, it has been divided into two sections: (1) *Digambara* Jaina canons and (2) *Śvetāmbarās* Jaina Canons

1. Digambara Jaina Canons

Bhadrababu

According to the *Digambara* Ācārya Devasen, the *Śvetāmbara* sect originated at Valabhinagar (Gujrat) about 136 years after the death of the King Vikramāditya, (It turns out to be 79 AD). There is an another opinion also about it. During the period of the reign of Candragupta in Ujjaini (M.P.), *Višākhā-cārya* the disciple of Ācārya Bhadrabāhu, went to the country of Punnata (*Karnāṭaka* along with his group of monks) and Ācārya Rāmilla, Sthūnāhadra and Bhadrācārya went to the country of Sindhu. When all the *Ācāryās* returned and met in Ujjain, they found there was acute famine there. The Ācārya of the group directed his monks to wear half-cloth (*Ardhaphālaka*) to cover their nudity. However, it was felt not to be necessary after the termination of the famine conditions. Despite this, some monks did not renounce the half-cloth. The

The Digambara tradition has the following Ācāryās after jambusvani and upto Bhadrabāhu as shown in the table:

D-tradition S-tradition Vişnu 1. Prabbava Svāmī 2. Nandimitra 2. Sayyambbava Süri 3. Aparjita 3. Yasobbad ra Sürī 4. Govardbana 4. Sambbūtavijaya Sūtī

2 Accordig to Švetāribarā tradition it was Śwabbūti who established the votika or Digaribara sect in the city of Radbuvira para 609 years after the salvation of Mahāvīra (609-52)=82AD). Pl. see Āvašyaka-bhāsya 145 etc. and Āvašyaka Cūrņi, p. 427

Bbadrabābu

5.

origination of Svetāmbara Sect is presumed with effect from this period. For the details, please see Vrhat-Kathā-Kośa (Treasury of Great Stories) by Harisena, 131; Darśana Sāra (Essence of Philosophy) by Devasena and Bhadrabāhu-Carita (Biography of Bhadrabāhu) by Bhattāraka Ratnanandī. For the inscriptions of Mathurā, pl. see Archeological Survey Reports Part III, Plates 13-14; The Indian Sects of the Jainas by Buhler, P. 42-60 and Buhler's article in Vienna Oriental Journal, Vol. 3 and 4.

The Digambara did not accept the validity of 45 canonical texts approved by the Śvetāmbarās. According to the Digambaras, all the canonical literature stands extinct. However, the Digambara texts (even upto Akalanka's time, 8th century AD) have mentioned the names and contents of ancient canonical texts. Just as, there is no mention of twelve secondary canons (Upāngās) in NaridiSūtra (of 5th century), the Digambara tradition also does not count them as canons. Dr. Jagdiś Candra Jain has written in his "Prākna Sāhitya Kā Itihāsa'' (History of Prākrita Literature), "The Twelve-fold Digambara canons were also composed by the chief disciples of Mahāvīra in Ardhamāgadhi. Both the sects admit the five sections of the twelfth canon named as 'Drstivāda' (Discourses on Doctrines) which include the 14 Purvas (Pre-canons). The Svetāribara canonical literature is said to be written in Ardhamāgadhi while the language of the ancient Digambara canons is taken as Jaina Saurasenī.

According to Digambaras, there are two categories of canons: (i) Within Anga (Anga-pravista, Deemed Univ Primary texts) and (ii) without Ariga (Ariga-Bāhya, Secondary texts). The secondary texts have fourteen books given below:

- 1. Sāmāyika (Equanimity)
- Caturvinśati-stava (Eulogy of the Twenty-four)
- 3. Vandanā (Veneration)
- Prati-kramana (Penitential Retreat) 4.
- 5. Vainayika (Reverence)
- Krti-karma (Reverential Conduct) 6.
- 7. Daśa-vaikālika (Decade of out-of-time)
- 8. Uttarādhyayana (Post-studies)
- Kalpa-Vyavahāra (Practice of the Prescribed) 9.
- Kalpā-Kalpa (Prescribed and Proscribed) 10
- 11. Mahā-Kalpa (The Great Prescription)
- Pundarīka (The Lotus)
- 13. Mahā-Pundarīka (The great Lotus)
- Nisiddhikā (Dispo al of the Dead Monks).

There are twelve texts under the Within-Ariga Canons. They are given below.

- *Āchāra* (Canon on Monastic Conduct) 1.
- 2. Sūtrak ta (Canon of Formulae of tenets)
- 3. Sthana (Canon on Numerated Stationings)
- 4. Samavāya (Canon on Categories)
- *Vyākhyā-prajhapti* (Enunciation of Explanations)
- Jhāthā-dharma-Kathā (Religious Biographies of Jnatra Lineage).
- ĭ. Antaknta-daśā (Decad of World terminators)
- 8. *Upāsakadasā* (Studies of Votaries)
- 9. Anuttaropa-pātika daśā (Decad of Anuttara-borns)
- 10 Praśna-Vyākarana (Explanation of Questions)
- 11. Vipāka-śruta (Formulae on Fruition)
- Dṛṣṭivāda (Discourses on Doctrines).

There are five sections of Drstivāda:

- Parikarma (Math. Operations) 1.
- 2. Sūtra (Formulae)
- 3. Prathamānuyoga (Biographies)
- Pūrva-gāthā (Pre-canons) 4.
- Cūlikā (Appendices)

The Parikarma Section has five texts:

- 1. Candra Prainapti (Enunciation on the Moon)
- 2. Sūrya-Prajĥapti (Enunciation on the Sun)
- Jambu-dvīpa-prajhapti (Enunciation on Jambū-dvīpa) 3.
- Dvīpa-Sāgara-prajĥapti (Enunciation on Continents and Oceans). 4.
- 5. Vyākhyā-Prajĥapti (Enunciation on Explanations)

drun The section of Sūtra describes theories of the living beings and three sets, determinism, knowledge. sound, naturalism, substantiality and purusa. The section of Prathamanuyoga describes the biographies of legendary personalities. The section on Pūrvagata has fourteen texts.* They describe the three-fold nature of realities like origination, destruction and permanence. The section on $C\bar{u}lik\bar{a}$ has five sub-sections⁵: (1) Jalagata (Movement in water) (2) Thalagata (Movement on land) (3) Māyā-Gata (Jugglery) (4) Rūpa-gata (Proteation and Learnings) and (5) Ākāśagata (Movement in space).

According to *Digambara* tradition, the twelve-fold canon has been lost. It is only a part of the twelth canon Drstivāda that is still remaining. This is available in the form of texts like Sat-Khandāgama (Sixsectioned Canons).6 Dr. Udadhye has opined in many of his introductory articles, that the Digambara sacred texts are pro-canons, canon-equivalents (upāgama, Āgama ulya). However, later the Digambara tradition has classified the Jaina sacred texts in four varieties called Anuyogas or Expositions. They are:

- Prathamānuyoga (Biographies): This category includes (1)
 - (a) Hari-vansa-purāna of Jinasena (Legends of Hari Lineage)
 - (b) Ādi-Purāņa of Jinasena (Legends of the First Ford-builder).
 - (c) Uttara-purāṇa (Later Lagends) of Guṇabhadra-disciple of Jinasena.

And other texts of legendary stories.

- Karanānnuyoga (Exposition on Cosmology and Sciences): This includes the following books (2)
 - (a) Sūrya-prajiapti (Enunciation on the Sun)
 - (b) Candra-prajnapti (Enunciation on the moon)
 - (c) Java ahavalā (A commentary text)

³ The four books of Candra-prajnapti etc. are included in the secondary scriptures of the Švetāmbarās. The book of Vyākhyā-prajňapti bas been accepted as the fifth primary scripture.

In contrast, the Švetāmbarās tradition has different names of Ācāryās after Jambu Svāmī and upto Bhadrabāhu Svāmī.

The deventh pūrva (pre-canon) has been called as 'Abandhya' in th Švetāmbara tradition while it is called 'Kalyānavāda'. 4. (discourses on Auspicious welfare) in the *Digambara* tradition. There are some differences in the number of chapters in case of some purvas in path the traditions.

According to the Švetāmbarās tradition, the appendices get included in the Pūrvas. In contrast, the Digambara admit 5. that they are not related with the Pūrvās.

In Digambara tradition, Sata-khandagama and kasāya-prābhrit are the only two texts that are directly related with the 6. twelve-fold scriptures of Mabāvīra. The rest of the scripture is admitted as lost or destroyed. For details, please see introduction of Saja-Khandādama Vol. 1 by Dr. Hirālāl Jain.

- (3)Dravyānuyoga (Exposition on Metaphysics: Reals and Realities or Realology). This includes the following books:
 - (a) Works of Kundakunda like
 - (i) Pravacana Sāra (Essence of Teachings)
 - (ii) Pañcāstikāva (Five Existents)
 - (iii) Samaya Sāra (Essence of the Soul) and others.
 - (b) Tattvārtha Sūtra (Formulary of Reals and Realities) by UmāSvāmī and its commentaries.
 - (c) Āpta-mīmāmsā (Critique of the Attained Ones) by Samantabhadra and its commentaries.
- Caranānuyoga (Exposition on the Conducts of the Monks and Laity). (4)

 - (iii) Ratna-Karaṅḍa-Śrāvakācāra (Gem-basket of the Conduct of the Laity) of Samaṅtabhadra.⁷

1.1. Importance of Satkhandagama

The text of Sajkhandāgama has also been named as Saja-karma-Prābhna (Basket of Existencial Karmās), Kharida-Siddhārita (Section of Sermons) or Sat-Kharida-Siddhārita (Six-sectioned Sermons). The sermons of Bhagavān Mahāvīra were reduced in the form of twelve-fold canons by his chief disciples. The knowledge of these canons could continue upto 683 years after the salvation of Mahāvīra. Afterwards these sermons passing verbally through the teacher-taught tradition were gradually lost. However, some portion of this twelve-fold sermon was in the memory of Ācārya Dharasena the Ācārāriga-proficient and absorbed in meditation in Caridra cave of Girinagar (Girnār, Kathiawada, Gurjrat). After thinking that lest the scriptural knowledge might not be lost, he wrote a letter to the assembly of monks at Mahimānagari. As a result, two monks named Puspadanta and Bhūtabalī reached him from Āridhra Prades. Dharsena Ācārya taught some portions of Pre-canons and Viyāhā-Pannatti under the Drstivāda canon to these intelligent disciples. The Ācārya Dharsena was also a great incantationlogist. He had written a text named "Joni-Pāhuda for the two disciples after acquiring the learnings from the goddess Kunśmāndini. The period of Dharasena is admitted as the middle of the first and second century A.D. (100-200 A.D.). Later on, Puspadanta and Bhutabali composed Satkhandāgama. Ācārya Puṣpadanta composed the 177 aphorisms of Sat-prarūpanā (Enunciation of Existence) and Ācārya Bhutabali composed 6000 aphorism to complete the remaining sections of the text. Thus, the major portion of the text of Sajkharidagama was composed on the basis of the fourth section of Mahā-karma-Prakriti. (The Great Karmic Species) under the second pre-canon of Agrāyani (Pre-canon of Top Doctrines). 1.2. Commentaries of Satkhard agama Many commentaries have been written from time to time on the important text like Satkharidāgama. Among them, the following commentaries are important (1) Parikarma commentary by Kunda-kunda (2) Paddhati commentary by Sāmukunda (3) Cudāmani commentary by Ācārya Tumbuluru. (4) Commentary by Samantabhadra Svāmī. (5) Vyākhyā-prajhapti commentary by Bappadeva Guru.

The periods of these commentators are admitted gradually as the second, third, fourth, fifth and sixth centuries A.D. Unfortunately, all these commentaries are not available now. The most important commentary

^{7.} In the Ś*vetāmbara* tradition, the following examples bave been given for the different kinds of expositions:

⁽a) Carana-Karanānuyoga (Exposition of Primary and Secondary conduct) Scripture to be studied on specification.

⁽b) Dharmānuyoga (Exposition of Religious Table) Rshi-bhāsita

⁽c) Gaņītānuyoga (Exposition of Mathematics) Sūrya-pragyapti.

⁽d) Dravyānuyoga(Exposition Metaphysics) Drishtivāda (Pl. See Uttarādhyayan Cūmi, P.1

^{8.} Pt. Kailāš Caidra Šāstri bas opined that Sant-Mama-pābuda is different from Sata khandāgama. (pt. See 'Jaina Shitya kā ltihāsa-1 P. 54 etc.).

of this text is the *Dhavalā* (White, Luminous) commentary which is written by Vīrasena Svāmī. It is only due to this commentary that this whole text of *Ṣaṭ-khanḍāgama* began to be called as '*Dhavalā-Siddānta*' (Pure Doctrine). The author of *Ādi-purāṇa-J*inasean Svāmī was the disciple of Virasen Svāmī. He has praised the deep and natural wisdom of his teacher. Vīrasena composed the 72000-verse-equivalent commentary named as *Dhavalā* in a mixed language of *Sariskṛta* and *Prākrita* in the style of *Cūrnis* and on the basis of *Vyākhyā-prajĥapti* of Bappadeva Guru. As per the panegyric of the commentator, the commentary was completed in *Śaka* era 738 or 816 AD at *Vatagrāmpura* (in current Gujrat). The commentator has given the following informations in it:

- (1) He belonged to Pancastūpa lineage
- (2) His teacher was Elācārya.
- His initiator was the monk Ārvanandi.

The author of *Dhavalā* commentary Vīrasena was an all-round scholar and he had studied the voluminous *Digambarā*s and *Śvetāmbara* literature. The commentary of Virasen has mentioned the following important texts among others:

- 1. Satkarma-Prābhṛta (Treatise on Existence of karmās.)
- Kaṣāya-Prābhṛta (Treatise on Passions).
- 3. Sanmati Sūtra (Formulae of Sanmati Mahāvīra).
- 4. Triloka-prajhapti Sūtra (Summary on Enunciation of three worlds).
- 5. Pańcāstikāya Prābhyta (Treatise on Five Existents).
- 6. Tattvārtha-Sūtra (Formulae on Reals and Realities) of Griddhapiccha.
- Ācārānga (Moolāchāra) (Book on Monastic Conduct).
- 8. Sār-Sangraha (Compendium of Essence) by Puiyapāda.
- 9. Tattvārtha Bhāṣya (Commentary on Formulae on Reals and Realities) of Akalanka.
- 10. Jīva-samāsa (Taxonomy of the Living Beings).
- 11. Chheda-Sūtra (Formulae on PenaliSațion).
- 12. Karma-pravāda (Discourses on Karma)
- 13. Daśkarni-sangraha.

The commentary has also quoted many verses of Švetāmbara texts like Ācārānga, Vṛhat-kalpaSūtra (Formulae on Great Prescriptions), Daśvelkālika Sūtra (Decad of Out-to-time Studies), Anuyogadvāra (Doors of Disquisition) and Āvaśyaka-Niryuhi (Explanations on the essential Duties) etc. There is mention of the aphorism of Tāla-pralamba (Tāla-tree high) of Vṛhat-Kalpa-Sūtra 1.1. in the commentary. Besides this, the commentator has mentioned the thoughts of northern and southern tradition in many places indicating that the southern tradition is simple and in tune with Ācārya tradition while the northern tradition is not only not simple but it is also out of tune with the Ācārya tradition. The commentator has attempted, as per his capacity to clarify the different renderings of the aphorisms and different opinions. The teaching of Nāgahasti have been called as traditional while the teachings of Ārya Mankṣu have been called as non-traditional in the commentary. This indicates the difference of opinions between these two great Ācāryās. These Ācāryās were proficient in Kaṣāya Prābhṛta (The Treatise on Passions) and they have been called as Mahā-Vācāka (Great Spokesmen).

1.3 Six Sections Şaţ khaûdāgama

The full text of Ṣaṭkhaṅḍāgama has six sections. The first section is named as Jīva-Sthāna (Stationings of the Living Beings), it contains descriptions of the living beings with respect to eight disquisition doors and there are nine appendices. The investigation doors (mārgaṇās) and Spiritual stages (Guṇasthānas) have been described under the above sub-sections. The second section is Kṣullaka-baṅdha (Minor Bondage). It has eleven sub-sections. In this section, the karma-binding living being has been described through the eleven

sub-section along with the varieties of karmic bonds. The third section is *Bandha-svāmitva-vicāya* (Thoughts on the Bondership of Karmic Bond). This section deals with the karmic bonds with respects to the bonder living being. The fourth section is named as *Vedanā* (Experiencing). This section consists of two disquisition doors: (i). Earned (*krita*) or committed and (ii) Experienced (*Vedanā*). There is prominence of descriptions on *Vedanā*. The fifth section is called *Varganā* (Variforms). The important sub-section of this section is *Bandhanīya* (Bondable) which describes 23 kinds of Variforms (*Varganās*). The sixth section is called *Mahā-bandha* (The Great Bondage). Bhutabali composed the *Mahā-bandha* in 30,000 verse-equivalents after composing 6000 aphorisms of the five sections including the aphorisms composed by Puṣpadanta (177 aphorism). The book is named as *Mahā-Dhavalā* (Extremely white or Luminous). The book describes the four-fold karmic bonds of type, duration, intensity and mass-point in detail.

Ācārya Vīrasena has composed 72000-verse-equivalent commentary of *Dhavalā* on these six sections. Later on, Nemcandra Siddhānta-cakravartī (a title meaning as the overall Ruler in Doctrines) composed *Gommaţosāra* (Essence of *Gomaţa*-teachings) on the basis of these six sections. It is divided in two sections:

- (1) Jīva-kānḍa (Sections of the Living Being and
- (2) Karma Kānḍa (Section on the Karmās).

On the basis of the structure of the *Dhavalā* Composition, the whole text can be divided into three parts: (i) the aphorisms of Ācārya Puṣpadanta (ii) The *Dhavalā* Commentary of Ācārya Vīrasena and (iii) Ancient quotations in prose and verses in the commentary. The aphorisms of Puṣpadanta are numerically 177. Their language is *Prākṛta*. The three-fourth part of the *Dhavalā* commentary is in *Prākṛta* while one-fourth part is in *Sanskṛta*. The language of the commentary is mainly *Śaurusenī*. The style of composition is refined and mature.

1.4 Kaşāya Prābhṛta (Treatise on Passions)

There was Ācārya Guṇadhara nearly in the same period when Ācārya Dharasena was there. He also had some knowledge of the twelve-fold scriptures. He composed a doctrinal treatise named as *Kaṣāya-Prābhṛta* (Treatise on Passions). Ārya Mankṣu and Nāgahaṣu° elaborated this text and Ācārya Yati-Vrshabha wrote a *Curni-commentary* on it. Ācārya Vīrasena also wrote a commentary on it, but he could compose only twenty-thousand-verse-equivalent of this commentary and died midway. This was completed in 837 AD by his capable disciple Ācārya Jinasena. This commentary is called *Jaya-Dhavalā*. (Victoriously & Luminous). The total contents of this commentary are 60,000 verse equivalent. It seems that the different elaborations of Ārya Mankṣu and Nāgahasti on this text were existing before Ācārya Vīrasena and Jinasena and he has mentioned the different opinions of both the *Ācāryās* in his commentary.

1.5. Mahābaṅdha (The Great Bondage)

The text of Mahabandha is also called Mahā-Dhavalā (Greatly Luminous). This is only the sixth section of Saṭkhandāgama which has been composed by Ācārya Bhutabali. Its benedictory prologue (Manglācāraṇa) is also related with the fourth Vedanā section of Saṭ-khandāgama. It is not different from it. Despite this, this great work is available as an independent work. One of reasons for this is that it is highly extensive in comparison to the other five sections. Secondly, it was not taken as necessary to write a commentary on it. The t is why, Ācārya Vīrasena also did not write commentary on it. It measures 40,000-verse-equivalent. The text of Mahābandha¹¹ consists of seven volumes. The first part deals with the type-bond (Prakriti bandha)

In the elders lineage to NandiSūtra of Švetāmbarās, Ārya Amankṣu comes first followed by Āryanandī. The name of Nāgabasti comes after bim. (pl. see Jaina Sahitya Ka Itihāsa-1 K.C. Sbastri, p. 12 etc.

Section (1.13) is edited by Pt. Kailāš Candra Śāstri, Jaina Sangha, Mathura, 1974.

The original text and Hindi Translation by Pt Phül Candra Siddhant Sästri in Seven Volumes, Bhārtīya Jñanpīṭh, Vārāṇasī/Delhi, 1947-1958.

which has been described in chapters on total bond, pseudo-total-bond, maximal bond, non-maximal bond etc. The second part deals with the duration bond. It has two main sub-sections:

- (i) Duration bond related with basic or primary (Karmic) types. (Mūla-prakṛti-sthiti-baṅdha) and
- (ii) Duration bond related with secondary (karmic) types. (*Uttara-prakṛti. Sthiti bandha*). The subject of Duration bond related with primary types is dealt with in four chapters
- (i) Enunciation of stations of duration bond
- (ii) Enunciation of Drippings (Niseka prarūpanā)
- (iii) Enunciation of Induction-splits (Ābādhā-kānḍaka prarūpaṇā)
- (iv) Relative Numeration (Alpā-bahutva).

Later on, the duration bond related with primary karmic species has described through chapters on time-sections (*Addhaceda*), total bond, pseudo-total-bond, maximal bond, and non-maximal bond etc. The duration bond of secondary species has also been considered in the same way. The third part of the book continues further description of the duration bond. The concept of bonding contact with respect to many living beings has been elaborated through chapters on consideration on permutation-combination on (1) Hangavicaya, divisioned division, and enunciation of measure, location, contact, time, interval, mode and relative numeration.

The fourth part of the book has dealt with the section of intensity bond (anubhāva bandha). This has two sub-sections:

- (1) Intensity bond with respect to the primary species.
- (2) Intensity bond with respect to the secondary species Both of them have been described through the enunciations of drippings and supervariforms (*Spardhakas*) etc.

The fifth part of the book deals with the remaining part of the intensity bond. It has been described through sections of bonding contact, permutation-combination, divisioned-division, measure, location and contact, etc. The sixth part of the book deals with the section of mass-point or point-bond. It has considered the point-bondage with respect to primary species and secondary species on the basis of the points of these species coming into bondage at each Samaya. They have been described through many disquisition doors (Anuyogadvāras). The seventh part of the book deals with the remaining topics of the point-bond. They have been described there through the chapters on enunciation of (1) location (2) contact (3) time (4) interval (5) mode (6) relative numeration, (7) ann-like-bond (Bhujagara bandha) (8) Naming (9) Ownership (10) Bondincrement (11) Mental activity resoluteness (adhyavasāna) (12) General illustrations (13) the illustration with respect to the living being and (14) placement of bonding steps.

Thus, *Mahābandha* is completed in seven volumes. With this, all the six sections of *Ṣaṭkhanḍāgama* are completed along with the inclusion of *Mahābandha*.

1.6. Tiloya *Pappatti* (*Triloka-prajfiapti*: Enunciation of Three Worlds)

Trilokaprajñapti¹² is the second book written by Ācārya Yati-Vṛṣbha who wrote a Cūrni-type commentary on Kaṣāya Prābhṛta. This ancient book bolongs to the exposition of Cosmology and mathematics (Karanā uyoga) and is written in the Prākrita language. It measures 8000-verse-equivalent. It describes the topics related with the three worlds postulated in Jainology. This treatise is related with the most ancient part of scriptures of Digambara literature. The Dhavalā commentary has quoted this text many times. The author of the book has acquired the knowledge of this subject on the basis of the Ācārya tradition. We find mention and different renderings of Agrayani, Sangoyani., Sangrāyani, Dṛṣṭivāda, Parikarma, Moolāchāra, Loka-

^{12.} Triloka Prajňapti, edited by Dr. A.N. Udadbye and Dr. H.L.Jain, Jīvarāj Grantbamālā, Sholāput, 1943, 1951.

viphāga, and Loka-vinišcaya. Many different opinions found in other texts are also mentioned in the text. The subject-content of this book is quite-similar to the *Prākrita* texts of Švetāmbara canons like Sūrya-prajñapti, Candra-prajĥapti and Jambudvīpa-prajĥapti as well as Digambara texts like Dhavalā and JayaDhavalā commentary and Triloka-sāra (Essence of the Three Worlds). Many verses of Triloka-prajĥapti are similar to the ancient texts like Loka-vibhāga, Moolāchāra, Bhagavatī Ārādhanā, Paĥcāstikāya, Pravacanasāra, and Samaya-sāra etc.

This text is divided in nine chapters named as:

1. Universe in General

2. Infernal world

3. World of Mansional-gods

4. Human (or Middle) world

5. Sub-human (Middle) world

6. Peripatetic world

7. Astral World

8. Empyrean world

9. The World of Doctrine,

These chapters describe mainly the geography and astronomy. Incidentally, there is also the description of Jaina doctrines, legendary stories and history etc. In the first chapter, there are 283 verses and 3 prose portions. During the illustration of locational auspicity (*kṣetra-mangala*), there is mention of holy places like $P\bar{a}v\bar{a}$, $camp\bar{a}$ ($Bih\bar{a}r$) and Urjayanta ($Girn\bar{a}r$, $Gujr\bar{a}t$) etc. Among the eighteen categories associated with the kings, the author has given the names of

(1) Elephant (2) Horse (3) Chariot and Charioteers (4) Army Commander (5) Foot-soldiers (6) Richmen (7) Judge (8) Menial (9) Warrior (*Kṣaṭriya*) (10) Businessman (11) Councilor (12) Police Officer (13) Priest (14) Minister (15) Chief Minister (16) Exalted persons (17) Senior persons (18) Group leaders while describing the body etc. of Bhagavān Mahāvīra the author of canon in essence, there is mention of 18 major languages and 700 dialects. There is mention of five mountains in *Rājagir* nan ed as Vipula, *Rṣhiśaila*, *Chhinna*, *Vaibhāra* and *Pāridu*. The thickness, width and height of the three-tier universe has been stated on the basis of *Dṛṣṭṭvāda* canon.

The second chapter has 367 verses which describe the infernal world.

The third chapter has 243 verses which describe the world of mansional-gods. There is description of halls like (1) delivery hall (2) anointing hall (3) Conamentation hall (4) Copulatory enjoyment hall (5) Service hall and (6) Prayer or incantation hall etc. and mansions like (1) general mansion (2) inner mansion (3) plantain tree-mansion (4) painting house (5) seating/sitting house (6) sound or music house and (7) creeper house etc. There is mention of ten sanctuary trees (Caitya Vṛkśas) of Pipal (Aśvattha), Sapta-parṇa, Śālmalī, Jambū, Vetas, Kadamba, Priyangu, Śirīṣa, Palāśa and Rājadruma.

The fourth chapter is the largest one which has 2961 verses and describes the human world. There is mention of the cities in the south and north of the Vijayārdha mountain. The names of eight auspicious emblems (mangala dravva) have been given as (1) Coronation vase, (2) Pitcher, (3) Mirror, (4) Insignia (vyanjana), (5) Flag. (6) Umbrella, (7) Cāmara fan and (8) Supratistha vase. There is description of ten wishfulfilling trees (kaipa-vṛkṣas) in the lands of enjoyment (Bhogabhūmis). The ornaments of males and females are also mentioned there. There is description of males and females born in pairs in the lands of enjoyment. The birth places, constellations at birth and the life-span of the ford-builders are mentioned there. It has also been pointed out that the five ford-builders ñ Nemi (22nd), Malli (19th), Vāsupūjya (12th), Pārśvanātha (23rd), and Manāvīra got initiated in young age (i.e. without marriage) while the rest nineteen ford-builders got initiated after enjoying the royal life. 14

^{13.} The Atthakathā (Vol. 2, P.382) of Sutta-nipāta of the Buddhists mentions Pāndava, Gijjhakuṭa, Vaibhāra, Isigili, and Vepulla as the five mountains. Mahābhārata (2.21.2) has mentioned them as Vaihāra, Vārāha, Rṣabba, Rishigiri and Caitvaka.

Nemi Malli Vīra Kumārakālammi Vāsupujjo ya. Pāso vi ya gahidatava se sajjinā rajja carammi. TP.

After the salvation of Bhagavān Mahāvīra, Gautama Svāmī attained omniscience. After the salvation of Gautama Svāmī, Sudharmā Svāmī attained omniscience. Later JambūSvāmī attained it after the salvation of Sudharma Svāmī. There is mention of (1) Shridhara Svāmī as the last of those attaining salvation, (2) Supārśvacandra as the last of the Saints having the prodigy of sky-movement, (3) Vajrayaśa as the last of the monks with tri-timal knowledge, (4) the monk Śrīas the last of the clairvoyants and (5) Candragupta as the last of kings getting initiated.

The following thirty one sections of this large chapter have mentioned the

- (1) Size of the land of the holy assembly (samavaśarana)
- (2) Length and height of the steps.
- (3) Structural arrangement of holy assembly.
- (4) Lanes or roads in the holy-assembly.
- Boundary wall named as dhuliśāla.
- (6) Lands named as caitya-prasāda (Planted with Sanctuary trees).
- (7) Dancing Halls.
- (8) Varity Subudining pillar (mānastambha)
- (9) Altars etc.

Sity Ladnun Later, there is description of the 34 excellences (atisayās) involving 10 birth-based, 11 at acquirement of omniscience and 13 on attaining ford-buildership. This description is followed by the names of guardian gods (Yakṣās) and goddesses such as

Guardian Gods	Guardian Goddesses		
1. Go-Vadana	1. Cakreśvarī		
2. Mahāyakşa	2. Rohinī		
3. Trimukha	3. Prajĥapti		
4. Yakseśvara	4. Vajra-śrinkhalā		
5. Tumburava	5. Vajrānkuša		
6. Mātanga	6. Arprati-cakre-śvarī		
7. Vijaya	7. Purusacdattā		
8. Ajita	8. Ivālāmālinī		
9. Brahma and others	9. Kusmāndī and others		

Hight kinds of prodigies have also been mentioned later. There is listing of fourteen-pūrva-proficient (5), ten-pūrva-proficient, (11) eleven-Ariga-proficient (5) and Ācārāriga proficient (4) Ācāryās.

We see many superb sayings (sūktis) at different places in the text. One of them has a meaning, "There is no wonder that the blind man falls in the well, and the deaf man does not listen to the sermons of the saints. However, the surprising thing is that the (5-sensed) living beings seek and listen. Still he moves in the direction of hells."

The fifth chapter has 321 verses. It is mostly in prose form. There are innumerable islands and oceans in the subhuman (and middle) world. This chapter describes the size and area etc. of Jambūdvīpa, Lavana ocean, Dhātakikhanda dvīpa, Kālodadhi ocean, Puṣkarāvarata dvīpa, Nandīśvara dvīpa, Kundalavara dvīpa, Svayambhū-ramana dvīpa and others.

There are 103 verses in the sixth chapters where the peripatetic gods have been described with reference to their residential areas, categories, insignias, families, names, Indras, life-spans, food-intake etc. in 17 subsections.

The seventh large chapter has 619 verses. It describes the astral gods with reference to their residential area, kinds, number, arrangement, measure, height, clairvoyance and power etc. The eighth large chapter has 703 verses. It describes the emphyrean gods with reference to their residential area or location, arrangement, kinds, names, boundaries, number of empyrean planes, majesty of *Indras*, spiritual stages and causes of origination of righteousness. The ninth chapter has 77 verses. It describes the siddhas- those living beings who have attained salvation with reference to their location, number, space-occupancy and bliss etc.

1.7 Pañcāstikāya (Five Existents); Pravacana-sāra (Essence of Sermons); and Samaya-sāra (Essence of Soul).

In Digambara tradition, the name of Ācārya Kundakunda comes just after Bhagawān Mahāvīra and Gautama-the chief disciple. He has also been called by the names of Padmanandī (Gladdening Lotus); vakragriva (Bent Neck), Blaachaarya (junior preceptor) - griddha piccha (Vulture-feather-broomed). However, his real name seems to be Padmanandī. He is called Kundakunda because he was a resident of the village of Kundakunda (Tamilnādu). His period is accepted as approximately first century AD. but, he seems to belong to third-fourth century AD. 15

The books of *Pañcāstikāya*, *Pravacānsāra* and *Samaya-sāra* are known as the triad of drama (*Nāṭaka-traya*) of five-existents, sermons, and the world of living and nonliving. These books are also called treatises of gift. These texts describe spiritualism prominently substantively. The contents of the texts have been described with reference to the pure ideal standpoint (*śuddha niścāya Naya*). Beside, these three texts, Kundakunda has also composed *Niyamasāra* (Essence of Conduct), *Rayaṇa-sāra* (Essence of Three Jewel) and *Aṣṭa-Pāhuḍa* (Eight Gifts) and *Daśa Bhakti* (Decad of Devotion).

Pañcāstikā ya¹⁶

There is description of five existents in *Paĥcāstikāya*. Amritcandra Sūrī (10th Century) has written a commentary on it which is named as *Tattva-dīpikā* (Illustrator of the Essence) and/or *Samaya-Vyākhyā* (Explanatory on the soul). In addition, Jayasena Ācārya (12th Century) has also written a commentary on it named as '*Tāttparya Vritti* (Purport-Commentary). Both the commentaries are in *Sariskṛta*. Brahamdeva has also written a commentary on it. The text of *Paĥcāstikāya* has 173 verses (181 as per Jayasena) which are divided in two sections (*Śrutaskardha*). In the first section, six realities (*dravyās*) and five existents (*astikāyas*) are described. Here, the following topics have been enunciated:

- 1. Differentia of Reality.
- 2. Categories of Reality
- Seven-fold predication principle (sapta-bharigt).
- 4. Attributes and modes
- 5. Definition of the reality of time.
- 6. Definition of the living being (jīva)
- 7. Nature of the salvated ones or siddhas.
- 8. Bondage of the living being and mattergy (jīva-pudgala-bandha).
- 9. Mattergy (Pudgala).
- 10 Definition of the medium of motion (dharma), rest (adharma), space and time.

^{15.} See Introduction of Pravacanasāra by Dr. A.N. Udadbya, P. 10-22.

^{16. (}a) Pancāstikāya bas been published by Rāychand Jaina Granthamālā alongwith commentaries of Amritcandra and Jayasena and with Hindi translation by Pannālāl Bakliwāl based on Hemrāja Pāndey.

⁽b) Sacred books of the Jainas, Vol.3: with English translation and introduction by Prof. A. Cakravarti, 1920, Arrab.

⁽c) Šastri, Pt. K.C; Kundakunda Prābb rta Sangraba, Jīvarāja Grantbamālā, Sholāpur, 1960.

The second section describes the nine spiritual categories of entity and the path of salvation. There is description of sacred, profane (sin), the living being, the non-living being, influx (āśrava), bonding (baridha), stoppage (samvara), shedding (nirjarā) and salvation (mokṣa).

Pravacanasāra¹⁷

It is the second important composition of Ācārya Kundakunda. This text also has commentaries by Amritcandra Sūrī and Jayasena in Sariskrta. According to Amritcandra, there are 275 verses in it while there are 311 verses in it as per Jayasena. Its commentary named as Saroja-bhaskara (Sun for Lotus) by Prabhācandra (14th century AD.) is unpublished even today. Bālchandra (13th century) has written a commentary on it in Kannada.

This text also has three sections (Śrutaskańdhas). The first section describes knowledge (jĥāna), the second section describes the knowable objects (ifiewas) and the third section describes the primary and secondary conduct (cāritra). In the section on knowledge, the following topics have been discussed:

- 1. Identity and difference between the soul and knowledge.
- The theory of omniscience and its proof.
- 3. Sensual and supra-sensual happiness/bliss.
- Applied consciousness (Upayoga) of auspicious, inauspicious and pure type.
- 5. Destruction of delusion or deluding karma and other such topics.

The section on knowables, describes the following topics: emed

- 1. Definition of reality, attributes and modes.
- 2. Seven-fold predication principle.
- 3. Knowledge.
- 4. Nature or karmās and their effects.
- 5. Properties of perceptible and non-perceptible realities.
- 6. Reality of time and its modes.
- 7. Vitalities (Prāṇās).
- 8. Auspicious and inauspicious consciousness.
- 9. Characteristics of the living being.
- 10 Relationship between the living being and mattergy.
- 11. Consistency between the ideal and real standpoints.
- 12. Nature of the pure soul etc.

The section on conduct deals with the following topics:

- 1. Characteristic of a monk/ascetic (or monkhood)
- 2. Re-initiation after default.
- 3. Nature of reduction in rank or division in conduct.
- 4. Proper food.
- 5. Natural and exceptional path.
- Importance of scriptural knowledge.
- 7. Definition of an ascetic.
- 8. The reality of salvation (moksa) etc.

¹⁷ Pravacana-sāra: Published by Rāyacandra Jain Granthamālā, Agas, 1955 and 1964. This consists of Sanskita commentaries of Amritcai dra and Jayasena, Bālāvabodhini (Children's Learner) commentary of Paidit Hemaraja (1652 AD) and English translation with introduction by Dr. A.N. Upādbye.

In $Vyavah\bar{a}ra$ $S\bar{u}tra$, there is provision of confession (of default) before the proficient ascetic (212). While describing the violence $(hi\dot{m}s\bar{a})$, it is said, "There is the In contrast, the careful person does not have karmic bondage merely by external injury to the living beings."

Samaya Sāra¹⁸

In Samaya Sāra, there are 415 verses as per Amrita Candra and 439 verses as per Jayasena. Both of them have commentaries on this text. The commentary of Amrita Candra is known as Ātma-khyāti (Glory of the Soul). There is one section (Kalaśa) of 236 verse. On this section, Šubhacandra has written a commentary in Sanskna while Rayamalla and Jaya Candra have written separate commentaries in Hindi. Among other commentators of Samyasāra, the following are noted: 1. Prabhā Candra. 2. BālCandra.-disciple of Nayakirti. 3. Višālakirti 4. Jinamiri and others.

There are ten chapters in Samaya- $s\bar{a}ra$. In the first chapter, there is description of self-soul (Sva-Samaya), non-self-soul (Para-Samaya), pure-standpoint, meditations on soul and righteousness etc. The second chapter deals with the living and non-living entities the third chapter deals with the ethics of action or karma (karma- $kart\bar{a}$), the fourth chapter deals with the sacred and sin, the fifth chapter deals with the karmic influx ($\bar{a}srava$), the sixth chapter deals with the karmic stoppage (samvara), the seventh chapter deals with karmic shedding ($nirjar\bar{a}$), the eighth chapter deals with karmic bondage, and the ninth and tenth chapters deal with the salvation and pure knowledge.

1.8 Niyama Sāra¹⁹

Niyamasāra has 186 verses. Padmaprabha Maldhāri Deva of the middle of 12th century AD has written a commentary (Purport) named as *Tātparya Vṛtti* on it. He has quoted many verses of the commentary of Amritacandra Sūrī- the commentator of three treatises. In this book, the following topics have been dealt with:

- 1. Righteousness
- 3. The Scriptures (Agamas).
- Right knowledge.
- 7. Penitential retreat.
- 8. Renunciation (pratyākhyāna).
- 10 Expiation.
- 12. Equanimity Practices.
- 14. Pure Consciousness.

- 2. The Attained one (āpta).
- 4. Seven reals (Tattvās).
- 6. Right conduct

(involving 12 yows, 12 model stages of disciplinary courses).

- Self-confession.
- 11. Relaxation.
- 13. Supreme devotion (parama-bhakti).
- 15. Six essential duties and ideal duties (niścaya āvaśyaka).

There is mention of Āvaśyaka Niryukti in the text.

1.9 Rayana Sāra²⁰ (The Essence of the Jewel of Rightousness)

Rayana Sāra contains 167 verses. The righteousness has been stated here to be the essence of the jewel. It has also been mentioned that one may acquire salvation by reading this book. One of its statement mentions that there are three kinds of mockery:

- (a) Devotion without reverence..
- (b) Weeping of women without affection.
- (c) Renunciation without detachment.
- 18. (a) Sarraya-sāra: Published by Raycandra Jain Granthamāla, Bombay, 1919. This consists of commentaries of Amritacandra and Jayasena.
 - (b) Sacred books of the Jainas, Vol 8, 1930, Lucknow; with English translation by J.L. Jaini.
 - (c) English translation of the original, and Commentary of Amritacandra, Murtidevi Granthamālā, 1950
 - (d) Pt. K.C. Šastri; Kundakunda Prābhrta Sangraba, Jivarāja Grantbamāla, Sholāpur, 1960.
- (a) Niyama-Sāra: Published from Hindi Grantha Ratnakas, Bombay 1916.
 - (b) Br. Šitaprasād; Hindi translation of the commentary of P. Malad bāriDeva, Delbi, 1971.
 - (c) Sacred Books of the Jains, Arra, 1931 edited by Ugrasen Jain, with engligh translation.
- 20. Rayana Sāra: Published in Gujrati Script from Himmatnagar by Kapilbhai T. Kolādia, 1967.

There are quite a number of similes like the one below: "Just as the fly wrapped in phlegm dies immediately, similarly the greedy of possession or the fool and ignorant monk also are subject to the physical mortification."

1.10 Aşta Pāhuḍa (Eight Gift Treatise)²¹

The Sat Prābhrta of Kundakunda includes the following six texts:

- (1) Dansana Pāhuḍa: (Treatise on Faith) (2) Caritta Pāhuḍa: (Treatise on Conduct)
- (3) Sutta Pāhuḍa: (Treatise on Sermons) (4) Bodha Pāhuḍa: (Treatise on Knowledge or Awakening)
- (5) Bhāva Pāhuda: (Treatise on Dispositions) (6) Mokkha Pāhuda: (Treatise on Salvation).

When we add Linga Pāhuḍa (Treatise on Garb) and Śeela Pāhuḍa: (Treatise on Good Conduct) to these six treatises, we have the eight pāhuḍas. Ācārya Śrutasāgra (16th century) has written a commentary on them. He was the disciple of Bhaṭṭāraka VidyāNaridī. He was designated with many titles such as the omniscient of the present (Kali-Kāla-Sarvajña) and the master of both the languages. In the commentary of Dansana-Pāhuḍa (p.18), he has mentioned five types of pseudo-Jains in terms of gopucchika (Possessed of broomstick of cow's tail), Śvetavāsas (White-clothed), Draviḍas (Aboriginals), Yāpaniyas (Dual-admitting) and Niśpichha (Without Broom-stick). In Sutta-Pāhuḍa, he has stated the nakedness as the true path of salvation. In Bhāva Pāhuḍa, he has given exemplary stories of Bāhubali, Madhu-pingava, Vaṣṣṭa, Dvīpāyana, ŠivaKumāra, Bhavyasena and Šivabhūti. In this text, it has been stated that the well-being of the self-soul is important:s

"One should keep himself engaged in the well-being of the self-soul until one is attacked by the old age, the cottage of the body in not burnt by the fire of the diseases and the power of senses does not get destroyed." The Mokkha Pāhuḍa has stated with reference to a yogi monk, "The yogi is always awakened in his well-being who sleeps in practice. And the yogi does sleep in his well-being who is awake in practice." There are 22 verses in Linga Pāhuḍa and 40 verses is Śīla Pāhuḍa. The Śīla Pāhuḍa has given the example of ten-pūrva-proficient Saṭyaki-putra.

1.11 Bārasa Anuvekkhā (Dvadašānuprekšā, Twelve Reflections)²³

The book of *Bārasa Anuvekkhā* of Kuńdakuńda has 91 verses. There is description of twelve reflection in it as below:

- (1) Impermanence of world (Adhruva, Anitya)
- (2) Refugelessness (Aśaraṇa)
- (3) The world (Sansāra), nature of

(4) Solitariness (Ekatva)

(5) Separateness (Arryatya)

- (6) Impurity (Asuci, of body)
- 21. (a) Ṣaṭ-Prābhṛtadi-sangraka, edited by Pannālāl soni, Mānikcand Digambara. Jain Granthamālā, 1920 The text contains Linga Prābhṛta, Sheela Prābhṛta, Rayana Sāra and Bārah Anuvekkha also.
 - (b) Astapā huda (original), with Gujrati translation, Himmatnagar, 1968.
 - (c) Astapā kudo (original with prose and verses in Gujrati), Šrimad Rāj Candra Āšram, Agas, 1970.
 - (d) Pt. K.C. Sāstri (ed.); Kundakunda Prābhrta Sangraba, Jivarāj Grantbamala, Sholapur, 1960.
 - (e) Schubring (ed.): Bodha Pāhuda, Chine Schriften, p. 348-354.
- 22. Compare the verse with Dasaveyaliya, 8.35.
- 23. (a) Bārasa Anuvekkhā: Edited by Pt. Manobarlal Gupta and Nathuram Premi, Bombay, 1910.
 - (b) Kundakunda Prābhita Sangraha, ed.pt. Kailāšcaiīdra Šāstri, 1960.
 - (c) Tripathi; Candrabbal & Bhatta, Vaishidbar; Mahāvīra and His Teachings, Bombay, 1977. Many of its verses are found in the eighth chapter of Moolaachaara. Pl. see Introduction to Pravachanasaara by A.N. Upadbye, footnote p.39.
 - (d) The Kattigeyānuvek khā of Kattikeya has descriptions about twelve reflections. The twelve reflections are described in 150 verses of Bhaga Vāti Ārādhanā and 70 verses of Marana-Samāhi-Painnā.

- (7) Influx (Āśrava, of karmās)
- (9) Shedding (*Nirjarā*, of *karmās*) (10) Universe (*Loka*)
- (11) Rarity of Enlightenment (Bodhi-durlabha)
- (12) Religion (Dharma)

(8) Stoppage (Samvara, of karmās)

11) Ranty of Bring meriment (Dours-duridona) (12) Rengion (Dharma

1.12 Daśa-bhatti (Daśa-Bhakti, Decad of Devotional Hymns)

The book of Daśa-bhakti consists of devotional hymns related with (1) the Salvated ones (2) Scriptures (3) Conduct (4) Ascetics or Yogis (5) Group-heads or Ministers (Ācāryās) (6) Salvation (7) Five-fold teachers (8) Twenty four ford-builders. Besides these, there are devotional hymns for Nandīśvara, peace and five-fold bowings litany (Parica Namaskāra maritra) in Prākrta language while Pujyapāda has composed them in Sanskna. Most of the text is in verses or poems while some portion is in the form of prose. This text could be compared with Pratikramana Sūtras, Āvašyaka Sūtra and Parichasutta of the Švetāmbarās. The devotional hymn of the 24-ford builders is the same in both the Jaina sects. It is just unforunate that no properly edited edition of this Daśabhakti has been published as yet. Ācārya Prabhaa Candra has written a Commentary on Dašabhakti. He has admitted Kundakunda as the author of Prākņta Dašabhakti and Pujyapāda Devanandīas the author of Sańskna Daśabhakti. The Daśabhakti originates from Sūtras like is the Pańcha Namoyāra. (Five bowings), Mangalasutta (Auspicity aphorism), Loguttamā-sutta (Best-in-the-wolld aphorism), Saranasutta (refuge-aphorism) and Sāmāiya-sutta (Equanimity aphorism). In the devotional hymn of the ford-builders (Tirthankara Bhakti), there are bowings to 24 ford-builders through 24 verses. This is followed by the aphorisms of penitential retreat (pratikramana) and self-confession (Alocana). The salvated ones in Siddha-bhakti and the twelve-fold scriptures in śruta-bhakti have been offered salutation. In the Cāritra-bhakti, there is mention. $\circ f$

- (1). Five-fold conduct of monks-equanimity, re-initiation after reduction, purification through exclusion, subtle passion and conformed conduct and
 - (2). Primary and secondary attributes of the monks.

The houseless ascetics have been offered salutation in the yogi-bhakti. There is also description of their prodigies. The heads of the monk-groups have been enlogised in the Ācārya bhakti. In the Nirvāna Bhakti, there is mention of holy places like Aṣṭāpada (Kailśa), Campā (Bihar), Urjayanta (Girnar, Gujrat), Pāvā (Bihar), Sammeda-śikhara (Bihar), Gajapantha (Maharastra), Śatruńjaya (Gujrat), Tungigiri (Mahārāṣṭra), Suvarnagiri (Sonagir, M.F.), Rewa-tata (Nemavara, M.P.), Siddhavarakuta, Culagiri, Dronagiri (M.P.), Podanpura (Maharastra), Hastināpur (U.P.), Varanasi, Mathura, Ahicchatra (all in u.p.), Śirpura and Candraguhā etc. Many saints and rishis attained salvation from these holy places.

There is eulogy of five paragons in the *paricha*-guru-bhakti. In the remaining Bhaktis, the names of *Nandīśvara Bhakti* and *Śānii-bhakti* are included.

1.13. Bhagavatī Ārā bhanā. (The Venerable Practices or Worship).24

Bhagavatī Ārādhanā, Ārādhanā or Mūlārādhanā is admitted as an ancient text of the Digambara ascetics sect. It describes four kinds of worship in the form of right faith, right knowledge, right conduct and right austerity. The religion of the ascetics is also mainly described here. It is worth noting that many contentions

Ārādhanā Paryanta : Somasūtī

2. Ārādhanā Paryanta: Somasūtī

Ārādhanā Kulaka: Abbayadeva Sūtī.

4. Ārādhanā Patākā: Vita-bbadta Sūtī

5. Ārādhanā Mālā etc : Vira-bbadra Sūrī

6. Introduction to Vyhat-kathākosa: A.N. Upadbye, p. 48-49

^{24.} Many texts have been written on Practices (or worship) in Praktta language. For example,

of this text do not agree with the conduct and thoughts of the *Digambara*. For example, it is mentioned here that the other members of the monk group should beg and bring foods for the ailing monks. Similarly, in the section on *Vijahanā* (Abandonment of the dead body), the method for leaving the dead body of the monk in the forest has been stated. One also finds the mention of *Śvetāmbara* textslike *Kalpa* (Permissibles), *Vyavahāra* (Prescription of Monastic Rules), *Ācārārīga* (Book on Monastic Conduct), and *Jitakalpa* (Traditional Practices of the Monks) in this book.

The text contains 2166 (or 2170) verses in all under 40 chapters. Its language is $Pr\bar{a}kpta$ or Jaina Sauraseni. This text has described, prominently, the monastic conduct. It has been composed by Sivarya or Sivakoti Acarya, who was taking foods in his hand-bowl, on the basis of compositions of the earlier Acaryas. No definite information about the period of the composition of this text has been available. However, from the contents of book, it seems that this text is as ancient as the Svetambaras scriptures. Many verses of this text tally with the ancient Svetambaras texts like Avasyaka Niryukti, and Vrhat-kalpa-bhasya etc. This also leads to conclude that this text is sufficiently ancient.

Many *Sariskṛta* and *Prākṛta* commentaries have been written on this text at different times. Aparājita Sūrī who was also called ViJayācārya has written *Vijayodayā* or *Ārādhanā* commentary on it. He also had a Vijayodaya commentary on *Daśavaikālika Sūtra*. The period of Aparājita Sūri is admitted as post-seventh century AD.

The second commentary of this text is written by pandit Āśādhara which is named as *Mūlārādhanā-darpana* (Mirror of the Basic (Monastic) Practices). The period of Āśādhara is 13th century Vikrama (12-13th century AD). The third commentary is named as Ārādhanā Panjikā (Register of Monastic Practices). Its manuscript is available in Bhandarkar Institute, Pune. Its author is not known. The fourth commentary is Bhāvārtha-dīpikā-unpublished. Ācārya Amitagati of Māthurī Saṅgha has translated it in Saṅskṛta verses. Pandit Sadasukhadāsji Kāśaliwāla has written a commentary on it in local dialect (Dhundhari language).

In the beginning of the text, seventeen kinds of death have been mentioned. Out of them, *Paṇḍita-Paṇḍita-maraṇa* (Extreme Prudents' death), *Paṇḍīta* marana (Prudents' death) and *Bāla-Paṇḍita-maraṇa* (Fool-cum-prudents' death) have been stated to be the best. In the category of prudent's death, the *Bhakta-pratijnā-maraṇā* (Death by renunciation of foods or fasting) has been stated to be praiseworthy. In the chapter on Insignia (*Linga*), it has been stated that the following four are the marks of Nirgrantha garb:

(1) Non-clothedness or nakedness

- (2) Hair-Plucking by self.
- (3) Renunciation of attachment with the body and
- (4) Carrying a peacock-feather broom.

The author has pointed out the defects of keeping hairs on head and has advocated the quality of hair-plucking. In the chapter on non-fixed or uncertain wanderings (Aniyata-vihāra), the author has pointed out the qualities of wanderings in many countries or areas and has prescribed to acquire skill in the related customs and behaviours, language and scriptures of the areas. In the chapter on Reflections, there is description of five kinds of non-afflicting reflections (asanklista bhāvanās) in terms of (1) Austerity, (2) Scriptures, (3) Potency of endurance. (4) Solitariness and (5) Patience as a force. The chapter on holy death has not only description of its nature but also description about external and internal austerities. The characteristics of residence suitable

^{25 (}a) Bhagavañ Ārādhanā: Muni Anantakirti Digambara Jain Grantbmāla, Bombay, 1932.

⁽b) Bhagavañ Ārādhanā published as Moolaataadbanaa with commentaries of Apatajita Suti and pt. Ashadbat, Sholaput, 1935.

⁽c) Bhagavatī Ārādhanā with Vijayodaya commentary of Aparajita, Karanja, 1935.

⁽d) Shivaryais Mūlārā dhanā; K. Oetjens, Hamburg, 1976.

⁽e) Bhagavatī Ārādhanā; ed. Pt. K.C. Sbastri, Sbola pur, 1977.

Paidit As badbara bas mentioned a Prākrita commentary on this text in his commentary on p. 643.

for monks have been stated. There is a detailed description about the purity of foods where there is prescription that eight kinds of defects due to origin, production etc. should be avoided before food-intake. There are exhortations on the renunciation of passions. The chapter on specific education, the self-service has been promoted.

The chapter on mārganā (Imetigetion), there is mention of $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ro$, Jita and Kalpa texts. The chapter on stablisation, the monastic conduct has been stated to be involving nudity and non-particularisation etc. while supporting the nakedness, Aparājita Sūrī has quoted many ancient texts like Ācāra-pranidhi (8th chapter of Dašavaikālika, Observation of Monastic Conduct), Āchārānga, Sūtra-krtānga, Nisītha, Vrhat-Kalpa-Sūtra, and *Uttarādhyayana*. Five kinds of practices have been mentioned

- (1) Āgama (Scripture-based) (2) Ājñā (Sermons)
- (3) Śruta (Canons)
- (4) Dhāranā (Retentiveness)

(5) Jita (Tradition)

They have been detailed in aphorismic texts. The prominence of Vyavahāra Sūtra has been mentioned. There is numeral description of syllables in the 14 pūrvas (Pre-canons) and 12 Primary texts (Arigas). There is a critical analysis of self-confession in the so-named chapter. In the chapter on Anufisti (Instructions or Teachings), the glory of the five-fold Bowings Litany (Paricha namaskāra manīra) has been described. There is also description of five Mahā-vratās (major vows) involving non-violence etc.

In the chapter on meditation, four kinds of meditation are described. Six aureoles in the chapter on Aureoles (leśyā), and twelve reflections in the chapter on Reflections are also described. There are many traditional stories of monks and ascetics involving Sukośala, Gaja-sukumāra, Annikāputra, Bhadrabāhu, Dharmaghosa, Abhayaghosa, Vidyuchcara, Chilataputra, and others who attained salvation by bearing the afflictions. In the fortieth chapter on Vijahanā (Abandonment), the rituals for the dead monk are prescribed. The detailed process of getting the dead body of the dead monk out of the residence is described. The methods of waking up, piercing and binding the dead body have been stated. There is prescription for all-night sitting by the side of the dead and binding the thumbs of hands and feet so that no peripatetic god may enter into the dead body. Afterwards, one should look for a good place in a forest, make it plane with darva grass, fine powder of bricks or tendrils of tree. Afterwards, the dead body of the monk should be placed on this plain bed in the forest and, then, return back to the residence.27

1.14 Mūlāchāra (Basic Practices)

Like Bhagavatī Ārādhanā, Mūlāchāra is also an important text of the Digambarās. It also contains some contentions which are against the Digambara concepts. This text is also called 'Ācārāriga' of Digambarās. Its author is Ācārya Vattakera VasuDevanandīhas written a commentary on it which is named as Sarvārthasiddhi or Ācāra-vṛṭṭi in which the author has described the essence of practices in brief for the benefit of his disciples. Mūlacāra deals with the conduct of the monks. Many verses of this text tally with the Śvetārhbara. texts like Āvaśyaka Niryukti, Pinda-Niryukti, Bhatta-parinnā, and Marana-samadhi etc.28 The period of composition of this text is taken to be near the second century AD. There are 12 chapters in it which have 1252 verses in all.

The first chapter on Basic Virtues (mūlaguṇas) describes the 28 such virtues of the monks involving five major vows, 5 carefulnesses (samiti), 5 restraints of five senses, 6 essential duties, self-hair-plucking,

^{27.} This subject has been treated in detail in the chapter on Višvag-bhavana (Abandonment, 4.29) and its Bhāṣya (5497-5565). The verses of Vṛbat-*kalpa-bhāsya* and *Bhagavat*ī. Ārādbanā tally completely in this case. See., Ja*gadiš Candra* Jain, Life in Ancient India (Revised editin). Vol. 4, Chapter 7: (The section on Funeral Rites.)

²⁸ Pt. Sukbalālji bas listed those verses of *Moolāchāra* in bis *Pańcha*-pratikramana-*Sūtra* which are found in *Āvašyaka*-Niryu kti .

nakedness, non-bathing, sleeping on earth, non-teeth-brushing, taking food in standing position and single dieting a day. The nakedness has been defined as the uncovering the body with cloth, bark, leaves and skins.

In the chapter on Commendation of Great Renunciation and Beddings (*Vṛhat-Pratyākhyāna-sanstāra-samstava*), there is instruction about dispassionation after winning over the afflictions of hunger etc. and stabilizing oneself in the observance of four kinds of practices like right faith etc. at the time of death after renouncing all the sins. There is mention of killing of four ladies named Kanakalatā, Nāgalatā, Vidyut-latā, and Kundalatā and four males named Sāgarāka, Ballabhaka, Kuladatta, and Vardhamāna in the city of Mithilā. These deaths represent fools' death. In the section on Abridged Renunciation (*Sankṣapa Pratyākhyanādhīkāra*), there is instruction to die with equanimity after renouncing all kinds of sin, passion and food etc. under the state of accidental death due to animals like tiger and lion etc.

In the fourth chapter, there is description of ten kinds of equanimous monastic conduct. A young monk is prescribed to speak with a young Jaina nun. The Āryikas have been instructed to go for alms-begging in a group of three, five or seven with a mutual thought of protecting each other. The Āryikas should offer veneration to the head of the monk-group by sitting five Hastas (~ 7 ft.) away from them. They should offer veneration to the preceptors by sitting 6 Hastas (~ 10 ft) away from them.

In the fifth chapter on the 'Five Kinds of Practice' (Paricācāra), there is detailed description of five kinds of practices like right faith and knowledge etc. and their different varieties. In this chapter, the popular idiocy (Loka-muḍhatā) has been illustrated by the religions involving crookedness text of Kautilya, Āsuraksha, and books like Mahābharāta and Rāmāyaṇa etc. The rules for observing self-studies have also been prescribed here. The term 'Sūtra' (scripture) has been defined as those texts which are stated or composed by chief disciples, self-enlightened ones, scripture-proficients, and non-deviated ten pre-canon proficients. There is mention of texts like Ārādhanā Niryukti, Marana-Vibhakti, Pańcha Samgraha, Bulogy (Devagama etc.), Pratyākhyāna, Āvaśyaka and Dharmakathā etc. in this chapter. The defects of night-eating have been described.

The sixth chapter on *Pinda-śuddhi* (purity or scrutiny of foods) describes forty six defects of food due to origin, production and scrutiny. In the beginning, the defects of origin, production, scrutiny combination, over-measure and taking meals with lust or condemnation have been described.

The seventh chapter on Six Essential Duties deals with the description of six duties of equanimity practice etc. through the nine positings of nomenclature etc. The thirty two defects of routine activities and eighteen defects of relaxation (bodily detachment, Kāyotsarga) activities (Kṛti-karma) have also been indicated here. The derivation of the terms like Arhat (enlightened), and Ācārya (minister, Head of the group) etc. has been mentioned. It has also been sated that the disciples of Bhagavān R ṣabhaDeva were simple by nature and dull (Jada) and those of Mahāvīra were crooked by nature and dull. That is why, both these ford-builders have sermonized the divisioned-conduct²⁹ while the other ford-builders have sermonised the equanimity practice. The monks of the categories of pārśvastha (Lax Conduct), attached monks, tainted-conduct (Kusīla), Apasanjā a and self-willed (Mṛgacāritra) have been proscribed for veneration. The kinds of confession have been described. The disciples of R ṣabhadeva and Mahāvīra recited scriptural extracts related with peritential retreat. The disciples of other ford-builders did not do so.

The eighth chapter on Reflection of Monkhood has indicated that the monk following ten kinds of purity of garb, vow, residence, wanderings, alms, knowledge, body, renunciation of pre-dispositions, sentences or speech, austerity and meditation may attain salvation. Under the description of purity of speech, the tales related with women, economics or livelihood, devotee, *kheta* (village), *karvata* (district town), king, thief, country, town and mineral town have been illustrated. There is mention of the protection of the city of the

^{29.} Please tally the verse 23.26 of *Uttarādhayayana* with this verse *Purimā Ujjujadā U Vankajadā Ya Pacchimā*

austerity through the policeman of restraint of senses and sentients. In the ninth chapter on twelve reflections, the reflections have been properly defined. The chapter on the essence of scriptures, the essence of scriptures has been described where the right conduct has been said to be the best. The peacock-feather broom has been described to be necessary for the monks. The carefulness has been said to be the best for the protection of the living beings.

Q. How one should behave? How one should stand? How one should be seated? How one should sleep? How one should eat? How one should speak? So that there may not be bondage of sinful karmās?

A. One should behave or act carefully,

One should stand carefully, One should get seated carefully,

One should sleep carefully, One should eat carefully,

One should speak carefully,

MININ All this does not lead to the bondage of sinful karmās. Similar verses are also found in Daśa-vaikālika Sūtra 4.7-8. Dr. A.M. Ghatge has given a tally of verses in Mūlāchāra and Dašavaikālika Nirvukti in his article in Indian Historical Quarterly, 1935. The six completions have been detailed in the chapter on completions (paryāptis). They have been described under six headings: (1) nomenclature (2) characteristics, (3) ownership (4) numeration, (5) formation and (6) duration.

There is description of spiritual stages (gunasthānas) and investigation doors (mārgaņās) in this chapter.

The chapter on Good Conduct (Śīla-guṇa) has described 18000 varieties of good conduct.

1.15 Kattigeyānu-vekkha³⁰ (Kārtikeyānuiprekṣā, Reflections by SvāmīKārtikeya)

The author of *Kārtikeyānu-prekṣā* is Svāmi Kārtikeya or Kumāra. He is admitted as an eighth century scholar of Šubhacandra (1516-1556) has written a Sanskyta commentary on it which was completed in 1556. AD. There is large amount of similarity in content and the linguistic style of Bārasa-anuvekkhā of Kundakunda and this text. This book contains 489 verses which describe the twelve reflections of transsitoriness, refugelessness, cycle of birth and death, solitariness, separateness, impurity, influx, stoppage, shedding, constitution of the universe, rarity of enlightenment, and religion in detail. There is the description of twelve austerities in the end of the book.

1.16 Gommața-săra (Essence of Sermons for Gommața)

The author of Gommuta-sāra (Section on karma and jīva-both) is Nemicandra Siddhānta-cakravartī of the Deśīya group. He was the prime-minister of the King Rācamalla of Ganga lineage and was contemporary of his army-commender Cāmundarāya. Cāmundarāya has installed the world-famous idol of Bāhubalī or Gommata Svāmī (which was his household name) at *Śravanbelgolā*. Hence, he was called Gommatarāya. Ācārya Nemicandra was a scholar of 11th century and he was called "Siddhānta-chakravarti" (Proficient in Doctrines) because of his superb knowledge of Jinistic tenets. He has written in his panegyric that I have critically learnt the six-sectioned doctrinal texts through my wheel of intelligence in the same way as the universal monarch subjugates all the six sections of the land through his wheel. He has remembered Ācārya Vīranandī in the panegyric of his book. He has composed Gommatsāra on the basis of doctrinal texts of

^{30.} Kārtikeyanupreshā: Hindi translation with commentary by late pt. Jayachand Chhabda, published by Gandhi (a) Nātharang, Bombay, 1904.

⁽b) It bas also been published by Patni Jain Granthamālā with Hindi translation by Mahendra Kumar ji Jain.

It bas also been published by Raj Candra Jain Shastramālā, Agas, 1960 with Shubbava Candra is commentary and (c) Hindi translation by Pt. Kailāš Candra Šastrī, (Introduction and edited by Prof. A.N. Upadbye), 1960.

Satkhandagama and its commentary named Dhavala and others. There is another name of Gommata-sara which is Paricha Sangraha (Because it deals with five topics of Bondage, Karmās under experience, bonder, causes of bondage, types of bondge), Gommata-Sangraha or as well as Gommata-Sangraha-Sūtra also. This has also been called as the text of doctrine or the stem of scriptures. Along with this book, Nemicandra has also composed Triloka-sāra (Essence of the Three Worlds), Labdhi-sāra (Essence of Acquirement) and Ksapana-sāra (Essence of Karmic Destruction). All these texts have been composed by him on the basis of Dhavalā and Jaya Dhavalā commentaries on Saţkhandāgama and Kasāyapāhuda respectively. The book of Gommața-sāra is divided in two sections: (1) section on the living being (Jīva-kānḍa) and (2) section on the karma (karma-kānda). The section on the living being deals with five topics :

- (1) Jīvasthāna (gunasthāna)
- (2) Minor (karmic) Bondablity.
- (3) Bonder.

- (4) Section on Experiencing (vedenā)
- (5) Section on Variforms (vargangās)

based on the doctrines propounded in *Mahā-karma-Prābhrta (*Treatise on *karma-*the great). It also describes the various states of the living beings through 733 verses and twenty chapters of (1) Spiritual stages (2) Taxonomy (3) Completions (4) Vitatlities (5) Instincts, (6-19) 14- Investigation doors and (20) Capacitative and functional consciousness (Upayoga).

- (2) Bandha-udaya-Şaţtva (Karmic Bondage, Fruition and Existence)
 (3) Saţtvasthāna-bhanga (Alternatives of existence stations)
 (4) Tri-culikā (Three Americal Control of the stations)

- (5) Sthāna-samutkirtana (Description of Number of bondable Karmic Species at a Time).
- (6) Pratyaya (Causes of Karmic Influx).
- (7) Bhāva Cūlikā Volitions
- (8) Trikarana-Cūlikā (Appendix on Three Kinds of Volitions).
- (9) Karmāsthiti-racanā (Structure of karmic durations.)

It has 972 verses dealing with the various states of karma. Pt. Khubacandra Jain has translated *'Jīvakānḍa*' in Hindi and Pt. Manoharlal Jain has hanslated '*Karmakāṇḍa*' in Hindi.³¹

1.17 Dravya Samgraha (Compendium of Realities or Dravyās)

Some scholars admit that this book is composed by Nemicandra Siddhanta-cakravarti (author of Gommața-sāra etc). But their opinion does not seem to be correct. It is now taken as authored by Nemicandra Siddhantideva of eleventh century A.D. He composed it at the current city of Keśoraya-patan in Kota district of Rajasthan. This book contain: 58 Prākņta verses which deal with the (1) Six realities of the living, nonliving, medium of motion, medium of rest, space and time and (2) Karma theory, reals (Tattvās) influx, stoppage, conduct, gem-trio, meditation and other topics. It has a large commentary by BrahmaDeva named as Brihad-dravya-sangraha.32 Pandita Āsādhara has translated it in Hindi in the form of verses.

1.18. Jambuddīva-Papņatti-Sangaha³³ (Compendium of Enunciations of Jambudvīpa)

This is a treatise of the exposition of cosmology and science (Karanānuyoga) and it is authored by

- 31. Jīvakānda bas a commentary by Abbayacaidra and Karmakānda bas a commentary by Kesbava Vami, Both 🧷 published by Haribbai Devakarana Gandhi Granthmālā, Calcutta, 1921 .
 - (b) Its original text with Hindi translation is published by Raicandra Jain Sāstramālā, Bombay, 1927-28.
 - Its original text with Hindi commentary by Todarmal is published by Bhāratīya Jaina Siddhanta Prakašani (c) Sanstha, Calcutta.
 - J.L. Jaini: Original text with English translation of Karmakānda, Sacred books of the Jainas-VI, Lucknow, 1927. It contain translation of only 397 verses.
- 32. Published from Arra in 1917 in the series of Sacred Books of Jain's with English Translation by S.C. Ghoshal.
- Published by Jīvaraj Granthmālā Solapur in 1958 edited by Dr. A.N. Upadbye and Dr. H.L. Jain. The introduction of this book contains an important essay 'Tiloya Pannatti ka Ganīta' by L.C. Jain

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Padmanandī Muni. In the panegyric verses of the text, he has called himself as blossomed with many virtues, free from three kinds of sinful activities (Dandas) and purified from the three-fold thorns (salyas) etc. He has stated that he is a disciple of Bala Naridī who is the disciple of Ācārya Viranandī who is the observer of fivefold conduct. This text was composed in the city of Vārā in the country of Pāriyātrā (in the current Kota area of Rajasthana) at end of 10th century or the beginning of eleventh century AD. This period is based on the fact that there is mention of this text in Sanskria Loka-vibhāga (Division of the Universe) of SinhaSūri (of late eleventh century). A large amount of contents of this text tallies with Triloka-prajfiapti. Many of their verses also tally with each other. Not only this, many verses of Mūlāchāra of Battakera and Trilokasāra of Nemicandra are also found in this text. The whole text contains 2387 Prākņta verses which are divided in thirteen chapters July Presity Ladmin (*Uddeśas*) as below:

- (1) Introduction
- (2) Bharata-Airāvata Regions
- (3) Rivers, Mountains and Lands of Enjoyment (Bhogabhūmis).
- (4) Sudarśana (Meru)
- (5) Jina temples on Mandāra mountain
- (6) Uttara-kuru.
- Description of Videha and Kaccā-vijaya and Devakuru.
- (8) Eastern Videha region.
- (9) Western Videha region.
- (10) Lavana Ocean (Salty ocean).
- (11) Continents and oceans, lower and upper world and the world of the Siddhas.
- (12) Astral world.
- (13) Measure of Length and Time (Pramāṇa-paric Cheda).

The text has given the post- Mahāvīran Ācārya tradition upto Lohacārya i.e. 683 years after Mahāvīra.

1.19. Naya Cakra (Wheel of Standpoints)

The book of Nayacakra is also known as Laghu Naya-cakra (Small Wheel of Standpoints). It is authored by Devasena Sūrī who is a tenth century scholar. This book has described the characteristics of the standpoints through 87 verses.34 The Śwałambarās Ācārya Upādhyāya Yaśovijaya has mentioned this text in his compositions. The book of 'Darsana Sāra' of Devsena indicates that he was the Ācārya of Mūla-sangha, and he has composed 'Ārādhanāsāra' (Essence of Practices/Worships), Tattva-sāra (Essence of Reals), Daršana Sāra (Essence of Jaina Philosophy) and Bhāva-sangraha (Compendium of Volition or Spiritual stages).

Devasena has stated that a person can not decide the true nature of reality without understanding the standpoints just as no body can acquire the pleasure without religion and nobody can satisfy his desire of thirst without water.

Also, just as a physician skilled in alchemy, makes the gold and enjoys the world; similarly, the person, skilled in standpoints, experiences the true nature the soul.

1.20 Ārādhanā Sāra (Essence of Faith or Practices or Worship)

This book is also composed by Ācārya Devasena. It consists of 115 verses and RathakirtiDeva has written a commentary on it.35

The term 'Arādhanā' has been stated to develop faith in mine fold entities of the living beings etc.

^{34.} Published by Manikcandra Digambara Jain Granthamālā, Bombay in 1920, appended in Nayachakrasangraha

^{35.} Ārādhanā Sāra : Publisbed by Manikchandra DigambaraJain Granthmāla, Bombay, 1974.

through the rational methods mentioned in the scriptures on acquiring righteousness. The subject matter has been illustrated through the examples of Šivabhūti, Sukumāla, Kośala, Gurudatta, Pandavās, Shridatta, and Suvarnabhadra etc. The mind has been giving simile of a king whose army of senses etc. is destroyed on his death. The persons, who do not keep the running camel of mind under control through the rope of knowledge bear pains through the cycle of birth and death. The author has stated that in order to uproot the tree of mind and cut off the branches of affection and aversion of this tree, one should not drench it by the water of delusion. Just as, the salt gets dissolved by acquiring addition of water; similarly, the mind also gets absorbed in meditation.³⁶ This leads to burn the auspicious and inauspicious karmās and the pure soul-fire gets manifest. With reference to afflictions (Parishahas), the author has stated that

"As the body experiences pain during endurance of the afflictions of desire for hunger and thirst etc., adrill the karmās bound for long also get destroyed".

In the end of the book, the author has mentioned his name as Devasena.

1.21 Tattva-sāra (Essence of Reals)

Devasena has composed this book for the enforcement of religion and enlighterment of the liberatable beings. There is a commentary of Bhatāraka Sakalakirti (1386-1442 AD) on this text. It has 74 verses which describe the essence of the Reals (Tattvās) to be known. It has stated that the liberation is attained through meditation:

"Just as a man without feet to climb top of Meru mountain, similar, is the desire of the monk to destroy the karmās without undertaking meditation".

The author has further stated by giving prominence of meditation on self-soul,

"A person can not attain salvation as long as his mind is engaged in the alien entities. However, when one undertakes strong austerities, he immediately, acquires the state of pure volition (of soul)."

In the end of the text, the author has stated while introducing himself:

"The monk Devasena has composed "Tativa sāra" after listening to the scriptures. Who-so-ever rightfaithed one reflects upon it, he acquires the eternal bliss".

1.22 Vṛhat-Nayacakra (The Big Wheel of Standpoints)37

The actual name of this book is Davva-sahāva-payāsa (Dravya-svabhava-prakāśa, (Light on the nature of Reality). It describes the subjects like reality, attributes, modes, right faith, right knowledge and conduct etc. It is a compiled text with 423 verses. The verses given in the end of this text indicate that there was a text named Davva sanāva-payāsa composed in dohā meters (couplets). The same has been written by Mailladhavalā in prakrta verses. This text has been composed with the blessings of the monk Devasena. The author of the text has offered his salutations to the, teacher-Devasana author of Naya-chakara. He has included his Naya-chabra in his Vrhat-naya-chabra. The subject matter of this text has been dealt with in fourteen chapters named as

- (1) Piţhikā (Introduction)
- (2-3) Attributes and Modes
- (4) Reality in general.
- (5) Five Existents

^{36.} This verse tallies with Dohā-Kosa of Kanhapa, verse 32

^{37.} Vrhat-Naya-Cakra: Published by Māni kcand DigambaraJain Granthamala, Bombay, 1920.

- (6) Categories
- (7-9) Means of valid cognition, standpoints and positings (Niksepas).
- (10-14) Right faith, Knowledge, Attachmental conduct, Detachmental conduct and Ideal conduct.

1.23. VasunandīŚrāvakāchāra (Conduct of the Householders as per Vasunandī) or *Upāsakādhyayana* (Studies on Householders)

The author of VasuNaridīŚrāvakāchāra is Ācārya VasuNaridī.38 of aphroximately later half of eleventh century AD (or early part of 12th century Vikrami). Pandit Āśādharji remembers him respectfully in his commentary of Sāgāra-dharmā-mrita and has quoted many verses of his text. This text contains 546 verses which describe the conduct of the householders. In the beginning, he has defined right faith and, then, has classified the living beings. In describing the non-living entities, he has enunciated the nature of Sharidās (aggregates), Deshas (1/2 Skarida), Pradeś (1/4 Skarida) and Paramanus (ultimate atoms). There is, then, exposition of seven addictions (Vyasanas, habitations) of (1) gambling (2) alcoholism (3) meat-eating (4) Prostitution (5) hunting (6) theft and (7) illicit sex. There is indication of twelve vows under the second mental resolve of vows. A detailed exposition of the effect of various kinds of donation is there. There is description of the rituals (Vidhānas) of Parichami (the Fifth), Aśvini, Happiness and prosperity, Naridiśvar-Pankti and Vimāna-pankti. The description of worship (Pujā) has been well explained. There is a detailed description of the ritual of the installation of the scripture-goddess (śrutadevī) and the consecration process (pratiṣṭha-vidhī). In the end, there is description of the effect of offering worship.

1.24 Cheda-pinda (Compendium on Expiation)

The term' Cheda' means expiation. This has also been named as 'Mala-haraṇa' (Removal of Defects), Pāpa-nāśana (Destruction of sins), Śuddhi (Purification) Puṇya (Sacred), Pavitra (Sanctification) and Pāvana (Expurgatory). This book consists of 362 verses which prescribes the different kinds of expiation to be awarded for monks and nuns on the basis of flawful deviation from rules regarding vows, carefulness, primary and secondary attributes, austerities and monk-group due to non-vigilance or puff. The author of this text is IndraNaridī Yogindra. He is nearby admitted to belong to a period of fourteenth century Vikram (13 century A.D.)

(B) Svetāmber Āgama

The Canon Siddhanta of the Jainas

The most important schism within the Jaina religion, namely, into the two great sects of the Śvetāmbarās, i.e., "those clad in white", and the Digambarās, i.e., "those clad in air" or "naked", occurred as early as in the first century A.D. The collective term given by the Jainas to their sacred books, is Siddhānta or Āgama. Both sects are unanimous in calling the twelve Arigas, i.e., "limbs" of the body of the religion) the first and most important part of their Canon. Hitherto, however we have a detailed knowledge only of the Siddhānta, of the Śvetāmbarās. It consists of the following texts:

I. The twelve Angas: 1. Āyāraṇga-Sutta (Ācārāṅga-Sūtra); 2. Sūyagaḍaṇga (Sūtrakṛtāṇga); 3. Thāṇaṇga (Sthānāṇga); 4. Samavāyaṇga; 5. Bhagavatī Viyāhāpaṇṇatti (Vyākhyā-Prajĥapti), 6. Nāyādhammakahāo (Jhātādharmakathāḥ); 7. Uvāsagadasāo (Upāsakadaśāḥ); 8. Aṃtagaḍadasāo (Antakṛddaśāḥ); 9. Aṇuttarovavāiyadasāo (Anuttaraupapātikadaśāḥ); 10. Paṇhāvāgaraṇāiṃ (Praśna-Vyākaraṇāni); 11. Vivāgasuyaṃ (Vipāka-Śrutam), 12. Diṭṭhivāya (Dṛṣṭivāda).

II. The twelve Uvangas (Upāngas) or 'secondary limbs'': 1. Uvavāiya (Aupapātika); 2. Rāyapasenaijja or Rāyapasenaiya (Rājapraśnīya); 3. Jīvābhigama; 4. Pannavaṇā (Prajhāpanā); 5. Sūra Paṇṇatti or

^{38.} Vasunandi Śrravakācbāra : ed. Dr Hiralal Jain, Murtidevi Grantbamāla, Kāši, 1952.

SūriyaPaṇṇatti, 6. JaṃbuddīvaPaṇṇatti (Jambūdvīpa-Prajĥapti), 7. Caṃda Paṇṇatti (Candraprajĥapti), 8. Nirayāvalī, 9. Kappāvadaṃsiāo (KalpāVātaṃsikāḥ), 10. Pupphiāo (Puṣpikāḥ), 11. Pupphacūliāo (Puṣpacūlikāh), 12. Vaṇhidasāo (Vrṣṇidaśāh).

III. The ten Paiṇṇas, Prakīṇas i.e., "scattered pieces": 1. Caŭsaraṇa (Catuḥśaraṇa) by Vīrabhadra; 2. Āurapaccakkhāṇa (Āturapratyākhyāna); 3. Bhaṭṭaparinnā (Bhakta-Parijĥā); 4. Saṃthāra (Saṃstāra); 5. Taṃdulaveyāliya (Tandulavaitālika); 6. Caṃdāvijjhaya; 7. Deviṇdatthā (Devendrastava); 8. Gaṇivijjā (Gaṇi-Vidyā); 9. Mahāpaccakkhāṇa (Mahā-Pratyākhyāna); 10. Vīratthaa (Vīrastava).

IV. The six Ceya-Suttas (Ceda-Sūtras); 1. Nisīha (Nisītha); 2. Mahānisīha (Mahā-Nisītha); 3. Vavahāra (Vyavahāra); 4. Āyāradasāo (Ācāradasāh) or Dasāsuyakkhandha (DasāsrutaSkanda), also called briefly Dasāo (Dasāh); 5. Kappa (Brhat-Kalpa); and 6. Paṃcakappa (Pañca-Kalpa). Instead of the last-named the Jīyakappa (Jita-Kalpa) by Jinabhadra is also mentioned.

V. Individual texts: 1. Nandī or Nandī-Sūtra (Nandī-Sūtra); 2. Aņuogadāra (Anuyogadvāra).

VI. The four Mūla-Suttas (Mūla-Sūtras): 1. Uttarajjhāyā (Uttarādhyāyāḥ) or Uttarajjhayaṇa (Uttarādhyayana); 2. Āvassaya (Āvaśyaka); 3. Dasaveyāliya (Daśavaikālika); 4. Pvṇḍanijjutti (Piṇḍa-Niryukti). The third and four Mūla-Suttas are also sometimes given as Ohanijjutti (Ogha-Niryukti) and Pakkhi (Pākṣika-Sūtra), and sometimes the Piṇḍanijjutti and Ohanijjuti appear in the hst of the Ceya-Suttas.

Indeed, with the exception of the Arigas, the lists the titles of the canomical texts are not always mentioned in the same way. The list of the Painnas, in particular, is very indefinite. Sometimes Nandī, Anuogadāra and Pamcakappa are placed at the head of the Painnas. The traditional number of books in the Siddhānta is 45, but the number of texts mentioned in various places varies between 45 and 50. In the Canonitself, viz., in the Thāṇaṃga, in the Nandī and in the Paiṇṇā, we find lists of canonical works, in which the only distinction made is either between Arigas and Arigapaviţṭha ("belonging to the Arigas") and anArigapaviţṭha ("not belonging to the Arigas"). The last-mentioned include the names of works which occur in the Siddhānta either as independent texts or as sections of well-known texts, but also works which no longer exist in the Siddhānta.

The language of this Canon is a Prākrit which is known as $\bar{A}rsa$ (i.e., "the language of the R sis") or $Ardha-M\bar{a}gadh\bar{i}$ (i.e., "half-Māgadh \bar{i} "). Mal avra himself is said to have preached in this language. There is, however, a difference between the language of prose and that of verses. As was the case with the Pāli verses in the Buddhist Canon, here too, the verses present more archaic forms. The most archaic language is to be found in the $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ramga$ -Sutta, and next to this, in the $S\bar{u}yaga\bar{d}amga$ -Sutta and the Uttarajjhayana. $Ardha-Māgadh\bar{i}$ is quite different from Jaina-Māhārāṣṭrī, the dialect of the non-canonical Jaina texts.

Regarding the antiquity and the authority of the Canon, the Śvetāmbara Jainas themselves have the following tradition:

The original doctrine was contained in the 14 Puvvas (Sansk. Pūrvas, i.e., "old texts"), which Mahāvīra himself had taught to his disciples, the Gaṇadharas or "heads of schools." The knowledge of the "old texts" was, however, soon lost. Only one of Mahāvīra's disciples handed them down, and they were only preserved during six generations more. Now in the second century after Mahāvīra's death, there was a terrible famine in the land of Magadha, which lasted for twelve years. At that time the Maurya Candragupta was king of Magadha, and Bhadrabāhu was the head of the Jaina community. Owing to the famine Bhadrabāhu emigrated with a host of his adherents to Karnataka in South India, and Sthūlabhadra-the last one who had a knowledge of all the 14 Puvvas became head of the community which remained behind in Magadha. During the absence of Bhadrabāhu it was evident that the knowledge of the sacred texts was threatening to lapse into oblivion. A Council was therefore convened at Pāṭaliputra, at which the 11 Arigas were compiled, and the remnants of the 14 puvvas were united to form a twelfth Ariga, the Diţţhivāya. When the adherents of Bhadrabāhu returned to

Magadha, there was a great gulf fixed between those who had emigrated and those who had stayed at home. The latter had grown accustomed to wearing white garments, whereas the former, in pursuance of the strict requirement of Mahāvīra, still persisted in going naked. And this is how the great schism between the Digambaras and the Śvetāmbarās came about. Consequently the Digambaras also refused to acknowledge the Canon, as they declared that, in their eyes, the Puvvas and the Angas were lost. In the course of time the Canon of the Śvetāmbarās was reduced to a state of disorder, and was even in danger of being lost altogether. Hence, in the year 980 (or 993) after the death of Mahāvīra (i.e., about the middle of the 5th or the beginning of the 6th century A.D.) a Council wsa held at Vallabhi in Gujarat, presided over by Devarddhi Kṣamāśramaṇa, the head of a school, for the purpose of collecting the sacred texts and writing them down. The twelfth Anga, containing the remnants of the Puvvas, had already gone astray at that time. This is why we find only elevan Angas in the recension which has come down to us, and which is supposed to be identical with that of Devarddhi.

Thus we see that, according to the tradition of the Svetāmbara Jainas themselves, the authority of their sacred texts does not go beyond the 5th century A.D. It is true that they assume that the texts which were written down at the Council of Vallabhi, are based on those old texts that had been compiled at the Council of Pāṭaliputra, and which can be traced back to Mahāvīra and his disciples. The Gaṇadnaras or heads of schools who were still pupils of Mahāvīra, especially Ajja Suhamma (Ārya Sudharmar), are said to have compiled the Master's words in the Arigas and Upārigas. Certain individual texts are, however, ascribed to later authors even by tradition, for instance the fourth *Upāriga* is ascribed to Ajja Sāma (Ārya Šyāma), who is said to have lived 376 or 386 years after Mahāvīra's death, the fourth Ceda-Sūtra, the Piṇḍanijjutti and the Ohanijjutti to Bhadrabāhu (2nd century after Mahāvīra's death), the third Mūla-Sūra to Sejjambhava (Śayyambhava), who counts as the fourth head of the school after Mahāvīra, and the Nondī, which is actually attributed to so late a writer as Devarddhi, the president of the Council of Vallabhi, in the 10th century after the death of Mahāvīra. Even the Digambaras admit that the first disciples of Mahāvīra knew 14 Puvvas and 11 Angas. They relate, however, that not only was the knowledge of the 14 Puvvas, lost at an early period, but that, as early as 436 years after Mahāvīra's nīvāṇ, the last who knew all the 11 Arigas died, and the teachers who succeeded him. knew less and less Arigas as time went on, until the knowledge of these works was completely lost 683 years. after Mahāvīra's nirvāņ.

Even though the tradition of the Jaina's themselves would not appear to be in favour of investing their sacred texts with a very great antiquity, there are nevertheless good reasons for attributing their first origin, at least in part, to an earlier age, and for assuming that Devarddhi's labours consisted merely of compiling a Canon of sacred writings partly with the help of old manuscripts, and partly on the basis of oral tradition. As a matter of fact, there are inscriptions of the 1st and 2nd centuries A.D. which prove that, even at that early period, the Jainas were split into *Švetāmbarās* and *Digambarās*, and that there were schools (gana) where the successive teachers were enumerated just as in our texts. As the same inscriptions also mention monks with the title of *Vācaka*, i.e., "reader", there must have been sacred texts at any rate in those days. Inscriptions and bas-reliefs prove that the legend of Mahāvīra as known in the first century A.D. was very similar to that found in our texts. The fact that the *Švetāmbarās* did not alter in their Siddhānta those rules which require that Jaina monks shall go naked, shows that they did not venture to make any arbitrary alterations in the texts, but handed them down as faithfully as they could. Lastly, it is also an eloquent argument in favour of the trustworthiness of the Jaina tradition, that it should coincide exactly with the Buddhist tradition in many remarkable details.

So much is certain: the works of the Siddhanta cannot have originated at one period. The Canon which Devarddhi compiled, and which has come down to us, is the final result of a literary activity that must as soon as the orGanization activity that must have begun as soon as the orGanization of the Order and the

monastic life were firmly established. This was in all probability the case not long after the death of Mahāvīra. The earliest portions of the Canon may therefore quite possibly belong to the period of the first disciples of Mahāvīra himself, or at the latest to the 2nd century after Mahāvīra's death-the period of the Maurya Candragupta, in which tradition places the Council of *Pāṭaliputra* whilst the latest portions should probably be dated nearer the time of Devarddhi. Scholars have only just begun to distinguish between the earlier and the later strata of the Canon.

As in usual in India in the compilation of collections of texts, here also the principle followed in the compilation and arrangement of the Canon is often, not the contents, but something purely external. It is numbers which play a particularly prominent part. Thus, to correspond to the 12 Arigas there had prominent part. Thus, to correspond to the 12 Arigas there had to be 12 Upārigas, or texts were grouped according to the number of sections they contained. Groups of ten (Dasão, "decades") of special favourites, and the compilers of the Canon tried all possible methods of achieving the number ten.

We now proceed to examine the individual works on the Canon, and shall deal more fully with those which are of greater importance from a literary point of view.

The first Ariga is the $Ay\bar{a}ramga$ -Sutta. In two lengthy sections (fruta-Skaraa) it treats of the way of life ($\bar{a}y\bar{a}ra$, $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ra$) of a monk. The first section, which makes a very archaic impression, is most decidedly earlier than the second and yet even the first is a mosaic pieced together from beterogeneous elements. Here again we meet with the mixture of prose and verse which we so frequently encountered in Buddhist literature. Now we have long series of stanzas, now long prose passages without verse, then again a rapid change between prose and verse, and often it is only fragments of verses, some long, some short, which are inserted into the prose passages.

These sermons consist mainly of exhortations and warnings, e.g., the warning against any kind of killing or injury of living creatures, for instance:

"I speak thus. All Saints (Arhats) and Lords (*Bhagavats*) in the past, in the present and in the future, they all say thus, speak thus, announce thus and declare thus: One may not kill nor ill-use nor insult nor torment nor persecute any kind of living being, any kind of creature, any kind of things having a soul, any kind of beings. That is the pure, eternal, enduring commandment of religion, which has been proclaimed by the sages who comprehend the world."

"You yourself are the (being) which you intend to kill; you yourself are the (being) which you instead to ill-use; you yourself are the (being) which you instead to insult; you yourself are the (being) which you intend to torment; you yourself are the (being) which you intend to persecute. Therefore righteous one, who has awakened to this knowledge, and lives according to it. will neither kill nor cause to kill."

The essential difference between the monastic rules of the Jainas and the Buddhists is, that those of the Jainas lay much more stress on severe asceticism, and even go as far as to recommend religious suicide. If a monk suffers from cold, he should rather freeze to death than break his vow. Howeverill and weak he may be, he should rather die than break his vow of fasting. He is to go naked, so as to expose himself to the pricking of the blades of grass, to the inclemency of the weather and the bites of the flies and mosquitoes. A long verse passage (1, 7, 8) includes, it is true, the famous ascetic rules which is known to the Brāhmīns and Buddhists also, viz., "He should not desire life, he should not long for death": this is, however, immediately followed by the characteristic rules on the various methods by which the accomplished sage is to starve himself to death by slow degrees. This passage is followed by a long narrative poem really a mosaic of verses, in which it is often doubtful whether they are verses-the *Ohāṇasuyaṃ* (I, 8), describing in a very graphic manner the ascetic life of the "Great Hero".

He wandered naked and homeless. People struck him and mocked at him-unconcerned, he continued in his meditations. In Lāḍha the inhabitants persecuted him and set dogs on him. They beat him with sticks and with their fists, and threw fruits, clods of earth and potsherds at him. They disturbed him in his meditations by all sorts of torments. But "like a hero in the forefront of the battle," Mahāvīra withstood it all. Whether he was wounded or not he never sought medical aid. He took no kind of medicaments, he never washed, did not bathe and never cleaned his teeth. In winter he meditated in the shade, in the heat of summer he seated himself in the scorching sun. Often he drank no water for months. Sometimes he took only every sixth, eighth, tenth or twelfth meal, and pursued his meditations without craving.

Section Π of the $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ramga$ is a much later work, as can be seen by the mere fact of the sub-divisions being described as $C\bar{u}las$, i.e., "appendices." The subject-matter of the first two $C\bar{u}las$ is dry rules for begging and wandering, and the daily life of the monks and nuns. In the rules as regards begging, and in the dietary regulations, the main point is the only such food is to be taken as does not in any way entail the destruction of life. In the rules for speaking (Π , 4) the essential point is that the monk shall utter no falsehood, nor anything which may hurt. The third $C\bar{u}la$ contains the materials for a biography of Mahāvīra, which have been utilized in Bhadrabāhu's Kalpa- $S\bar{u}tra$, and which recur there in part. The book ends with twelve verses, the contents of which are somewhat reminiscent of the Buddhist Theragāthās.

The second Ariga, the Sūyagaḍamga, treats of the pious life of monks and is mainly devoted to the confutation of heretical opinions. This Ariga, too, consists of two books, the second of which is probably only an appendix, added later, to the old Ariga which we have in the first book. This is composed in verses, Ślokas and also more artificial metres; the similes, too, show that the author was desirous of proving himself to be a poet. Some of these similes are turned quiet prettily, as for instance, when it says: As birds of prey swoop down upon young, unfledged birds and carry them off, thus unscrupulous people seek to entice young monks (I, 14, 2ff.). The explicit purpose of the book is to keep young monks away from the heretical doctrines of other teachers, to warn them of all dangers and temptations, to confirm them in their faith and thus lead them to the highest goal. The work begins with a condemnation of the doctrines of the Buddhists and heretics, and the principal teachings of Mahāvīra are set forth in opposition to these. It is true, nevertheless, that what is here said about Karma and Saṃsāra does not differ greatly from the "heretical" doctrines. For instance, such sentences as the following (I, 2, 1, 13) might be found equally well in a Buddhist text:

"It is not myself alone who suffers, all creatures in the world suffer; this a wise man should consider, and he should patiently bear (such calamities) as befall him, without giving way to his passions."

There is a graphic description of the cares and dangers with which the monastic life is fraught, but by which the novice should not allow himself to be repelled. His friends and relatives seek to hold him back, and paint the joys of family life to him in attractive colours. Kings and ministers, Brāhmīns and warriors endeavour to entice him to return to the world, but he is to withstand all these temptations. Critics and heretics attack him, and he should stand up to them courageously. Most especially, however, the young monk should beware of the blandishments of women, who use their utmost endeavours to fascinate him in every manner imaginable. By way of warning, there is a description, not devoid of humour, of the plight of men who have been caught in the web of women.

"And then they make him do what they like, even as a wheel-wright gradually turns the felly of a wheel. As an antelope caught in a snare, so he does not get out of it, however he struggles."

"Afterwards he will feel remorse like one who has drunk milk mixed with poison; considering the consequences a worthy monk should have no intercourse with women."

.........."Now hear the pleasures of Śramaṇas which some monks enjoy."

"When a monk breaks the law, dotes (on a woman), and is absorbed by that passion, she afterwards scolds him, lifts her foot, and tramples on his head....."

"By when they have captured him, they send him on all sorts of errands: 'Look (for the bodkin to) carve the bottle-gourd, fetch some nice fruit."

"(Bring) wood to cook the vegetables, or that we may light a fire at night; paint my feet, come and meanwhile rub my back!...."

"Reach me the lip-salve, fetch the umbrella and slippers, the knife to cut the string, have my robe dyed bluish!."

"Fetch me the pincers, the comb, the ribbon to bind up the hair, reach me the looking-glass, but the tooth-brush near me"......

......"Pregnant women order their husbands about like slaves to fulfil their craving."

"When a son, the reward (of their wedded life), is born, (the mother bids the father) to hold the baby, or to give it to her. Thus some supporters of their sons have to carry burdens like camels."

"Getting up in the night they lull the baby asleep like nurses; and though they are ashamed of themselves, they wash the clothes like washermen."

Like the authors of so many of the texts of the *Purāṇas* and Buddhist Suttas, a section of this Jaina *Ariga*, too, dwells with truly Sadistic complacency on the fantastic description of the hells and the most gruesome torments of hell (I, 5, 1 f.). However, the author invariably reverts to polemics. Thus, for instance, he assails Brahmanical ritual, in the following terms (I, 7): If it were true that perfection can be attained by ablutions with cold water, then fishes, tortoises and snakes would attain the highest perfection; and if water really washed away the evil deed, then it must needs wash away the good deed also. Brāhmīns assert that perfection is to be attained by the daily lighting of the fire; if this were true, smiths and artisans of a similar nature would attain the highest sanctity.

It is possible that this book is the work of a single author. It is more probable, however, that a compiler untied various poems and sermons on the same theme to form one book. On the other hand, Book II, written in prose, is merely a somewhat clumsy conglomeration of appendices. These, too, are for the most part polemical in content and have only been appended because they deal with the same kind of themes as the old Ariga. Nevertheless, even this book is of importance as contributing to our knowledge of the life of religious sects in India.

In the third Ariga, the Thāṇaṃga, as in the Ariguttara-Nikāya of the Buddhists, various themes of the religion are dealt with in numerical order from 1 to 10. These enumerations sometimes contain parables in a nutshell, as for instance: There are four kinds of baskets, and also of teachers; there are four kinds of fishes, and also of mendicants; there are four kinds of balls, and also of men, etc. Occasionally, too, enumerations occur which are not directly connected with religion, e.g., the ten themes of mathematics (in Sūtra 747). This Ariga also contains important literary data regarding the Siddhānta, especially a table of contents of the Diţṭhivāya which has gone astray.

The fourth *Ariga*, the *Samavāyaṃga*, is in a way a continuation of the third, the subject-matter of the first two thirds of the work being arranged in numerical groups, just like the *Thāṇaṃga*, except that in this case the numbers do not stop at 10, but go a long way beyond 100, as far as a million.

The work begins with an enumeration of the twelve Arigas and a table of contents of the fourteen Puvvas. At the conclusion, however, we find very exact data regarding not only the contents but also the

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extent of all the twelve Arigas, including the Samavāya itself. There is evidence of the fact that the Ariga in its present form is either a late work or that it contains portions of later date, in such things as the enumeration, under the number 18, of the eighteen kinds of Brāhmī script, the enumeration, under number 36, of the thirty-six sections of the Uttarajjhayaṇa, and the mention of so recent a work as the Naridī. The data in regard to the extent of the Arigas do not tally with their present extent, and some of the figures given are very fantastic.

The fifth Anga, the Bhagavatī Viyāhā-Paṇṇati, "the holy teaching of explanations", usually entitled briefly "Bhagavatī", contains a bulky, circumstantial presentation of the dogmatics of Jainism, partly in the form of questions and answers, Mahāvīra, replying to the questions of his principal disciple Goyama Indrabhūti, and partly in the form of dialogue-legends (itihāsa-saṃvāda). The contents are a motley mixture of ancient doctrines and traditions, with numerous later additions containing frequent allusions to other works, more especially to the Pannavaṇā, the Jīvābhigama, the Uvavāiya, the Rāya-Paseṇaijja, the Nandī and the Āyāradasāo. This work gives a more vivid picture than any other work, of the life and work of Niahāvīra, his relationship to this disciples and contemporaries, and his whole personality. Side by side with reports concerning apparitions of deities and the miraculous powers of Mahāvīra we also find purely human traits, such as in the following account of the meeting of Mahāvīra with his mother:

(The Brahman Usabhadatta and his wife Devāṇandā went on pilgrimage to Mahāvīra). "Then milk began to flow from the breast of the Brahman woman Devāṇandā, her eyes filled with tears, her arms swelled beside her bangles, her jacket stretched, the hairs of her body stood erect, as when a Kadamba unfolds itself in response to a shower of rain; thus she gazed at the holy monk Mahāvīra, without averting her eyes. "Why, Master", said the venerable Goyama to the holy monk Mahāvīra, "does the Brahman woman Devāṇandā gaze...(thus)....without averting her eyes?" "Hear, Goyama" said Mahāvīra, "the Brahman woman Devāṇandā, is my mother, I am the son of the Brahman woman Devāṇandā. That is why the Brahman woman Devāṇandā gazes at me with tender love, the cause of which is that I first originated in her." (It is then related how Devāṇandā was received into the Order by Mahāvīra himself).

We are probably also justified in regarding many of the doctrines, and particularly the similes and parables contained in this book as traces of the founder's own peculiar manner of expression.

'Numerous parables', which have been handed down faithfully as such, show Mahāvīra endeavouring to make his meaning comprehensible to this hearers. He must condescend very low to the level of their intelligence, and draw on incidents familiar to them from their daily lives. Thus, for instance, the old man, to whom a blow from an axe causes the same pain as grief causes to an elemental being (19, 3); the immense number of glances fixed upon a dancing girl, the crowdedness and yet isolation of which corresponds to the kindred qualities of the single points of space (11, 10); the goat-shed which is as full of the excrements of the goats, as origination and decay are taking place at every point of space (12, 7). Souls and substances permeate one another, as water permeates a sunken ship (1, 6)" etc.

It is quite likely that Mahāvīra delivered the speeches about Saṃsāra and Kamma as they are written down here, e.g.

"As each mesh in a piece of netting which is set in a row of meshes, without a gap, occupying a regular and co-ordinated position in contact with the other meshes, reacts on the next mesh in regard to heaviness, drag, full-weight and closeness, even so in every single soul in many thousands of reincarnations, each one of many thousands of forms of life reacts in regard to heaviness, drag, full-weight and closeness on the life next to it." (5, 3)

"This soul of yours, Goyama, has already been incarnated as a mother, father, brother, sister, wife, son, daughter-in-law as a foe, adversary, murderer, injure and opponent, as a prince, royal heir, governor, mayor, magistrate, millionaire, master of guild, commander and merchant, oas a slave, messenger, servant,

serf, pupil and domestic, in relation to all souls, and all souls have already been incarnated...(as the same).....in relation to your soul and that more than once or an endless number of times" (12, 7).

"Just as if a man should eat food which tastes delicious, well cooked in a saucepan, and containing the desired quantity of each of the eighteen principal ingredients, but nevertheless mixed with poison, and after having consumed it, though he is in good health, yet changes...(to a condition which is bad in every respect) even thus, Kālodāī, souls change...(to a condition which is bad in every respect)....if they take unto themselves the hurting of beings, untrue speech, misappropriation, sexual stimulation, possession, anger, pride, deceit and greed, love and hate, strife, slander, gossip and back-biting and greed, love and hate, strife, slander, gossip and back-biting, dislike, and liking, lying and deception, and that thorn of false belief. Thus it comes about, Kālodāī, that souls perform evil deeds, from which evil fruits ripen. But if a man eats delicious food...mixed with wholesome substance, and though he is notin good health when he consumes it, but yet changes afterwards...(to a condition which is good in every respect), even so, Kālodāī, souls change, when they incorporate abstinence from hurting....from false belief, that thorn....(to a condition which is good in every respect)... Thus it comes about Kālodāī, that souls perform good deeds, from which good fruits ripen" (7, 10).

The legendary portion of the work also gives an account of the predecessors of Mahāvīa, and of pious ascetics who attained great divine dignity though their severe castigations. Considerable space is also devoted to the descriptions of the heavenly worlds of the gods, which are granted as a reward to the pious and the hells with their torments, to which the wicked are doomed. Among the legends, those dealing with the predecessors and contemporaries of Mahāvīra are specially important, namely those of the disciples of Pārśva and of Jamāli and Gosāla Makkhaliputta, the founders of sects, to which Book XV of the *Bhagavatī* is devoted. This section is a good example of the way in which one sect presents the life of the founder of a hostile sect: The nucleus of history in the background of this presentation, appears to be the fact that the two hostile sects, the Nigaṇṭhas, i.e., the adherents of Pārśva and Mahāvīra, and the Ājīvakas, i.e., the adherents of Gosāla, were originally very closely connected, before they came to a parting of the ways. It would seem that this Book XV of the *Bhagavatī* was originally an independent text, and indeed the whole of the fifth *Ariga* has the appearance of a mosaic, into which various texts were inserted little by little.

The sixth Ariga is entitled Nāyā-Dhammakahāo, which probably means (Examples and religious narratives." Book I of this Ariga consists of 21 chapters, each one of which as a rule presents a complete, independent narrative. Most of these tales are of the type which lays more stress on some parable incorporated in them than on the tale itself; some are, indeed, nothing but parables spun out and enlarged to form narratives. As an instance of this type, there is Chapter 7, in which the following is related:

A merchant had four daughters-in-law. In order to put them to the test, he gives each of them five grains of rice with orders to preserve them carefully until he shall ask for them back again. The first daughter-in-law throws the grains away, and thinks to herself: "There are plenty of grains of rice in the larder, I shall give him others instead." The second thinks in the same way, the eats the grains. The third daughter-in-law preserves them carefully in her jewel-casket. But the fourth one plants the grains, and reaps; she again sows the harvest and reaps again, until at the end of five years she has accumulate a large store of rice. Then the merchant returns and punishes the first two daughters-in-law, assigning them the meanest tasks in the household; he entrusts the third one with the guarding of the entire property; but he gives the entire management of the large household into the hands of the fourth daughter-in-law-These four women represent the monks some of whom do not keep the five great vows at all, others neglect them, the better ones observe them conscientiously, but the best of whom are not content with observing them, but propagate them also.

Side by side with legends and parables of this nature, we also encounter regular novels, tales of travelers adventures, mariners fairy-tales, robber tales and the like, in which the parable only appears in the form of a

moral clumsily tacked on to the end. In Chapter 8 the legend of Malli, the only female *Tirtharkara* is told, with that morality which, though sickly to our taste, is so characteristic of the monastic conception of life:

Malli, the daughter of the king of Mithilā, is of wondrous, incomparable beauty. Six princes learn of her beauty, each in a different way, and woo her. One of them, the king of the Kuru land, gets to know of Mallī through a portrait which an artist has painted of her, after he had seen only the princess' great toe. Mallī's father refuses all the six princes. They are infuriated, and combine to wage war against the king. Mithilā is besieged, and the king is helpless. Then Mallī advises the king to invite each one of the princes into the city, promising each one her hand. Owing to her power of clairvoyance, she had already foreseen everything long before, and had a "puzzling house" constructed; then she made a figure which bore exact resemblance to herself, and put it into this house. This figure had an opening on the head, into which she put remnants of her meals everyday. She took care to conceal the opening carefully with lotus blossoms. The princes were conducted into this "puzzling house". While they are admiring the figure of the princess through a wall of netting, Mallī herself appears. She opens the figure, and a terrible stench is spread about, so that the princes hastily cover their faces and turn away, whereupon the beautiful princess moralises on the fact that the inside of her lovely body is even much more loathsome than the inside of this figure. They should therefore not set any store on the enjoyment of love. She then tells the study of her former births, in which the six princes also played a part, and announces that she has decided to become a nun, whereupon the six princes also renounce the world.

It is a favourite theme in Jinist legends in general, as in this particular instance, to follow up the fate of persons through various rebirths. In chapter, 13, a pious layman who had lapsed into heresy for lack of a suitable teacher, was reborn as a frog, in spite of his many good works. In this existence he is crushed by a horse's hoof, but is just able to summon his remaining strength sufficiently to repeat the formula of worship to Mahāvīra, and is consequently reborn immediately as a god in heaven. Chapter 16 contains the legend of Dovaī, i.e., Draupadī, in the form of a story of rebirth. This is a monkish corruption of the legend from the Mahābhārata of Draupadī's marriage to the five brothers.

Book II of this *Ariga* is a complete contrast to Book both in form and contents, and is more closely associated with the seventh and the ninth *Arigas*. Conously enough, the story of the goddess Kālī is here told as a Dhammakhā, "sermon", though it is emirantly unsuitable for this purpose.

The seventh Ariga Uvāsagadasā, i.e., "the ten (chapters on the duties) of the lay adherent" also contains narratives for the most part. Legends are told of ten pious householders, most of whom are wealthy merchants, who impose on themselves certain forms of self-denial, take the vows enumerated by Mahāvīra, and become pious lay adherents. By dint of their asceticism they actually attain to miraculous powers while they are still lay adherents: finally they die a voluntary death by starvation as genuine Jaina saints, and are reborn as gods in the heaven of the pious. Just as in the Purāṇas and the Buddhist Mahāyāna-Sūtras, ten stories of this kind are included in one and the same frame, being told by the venerable, Suhamma to Jambū. The legends are all told after a stereotyped pattern in the most monotonous manner imaginable, so much so that in the later stories there is often only a catch word given by way of allusion to the earlier stories. The part that has the greatest claim upon our interest, in Chapter VII, in which the story is told of the wealthy potter Saddālaputta, who had been an adherent of Gosāla Makkhaliputta, but seceded from him and went over to Mahāvīra. The description of how Mahāvīra convinces the potter of the truth of his doctrine, is in places reminiscent of the best Buddhist dialogues. It is obvious, however, that the whole work was only compiled for devotional purposes.

The next two Arigas, composed on the same plan, can lay just as little claim to literary merit. The eighth Ariga, Amtagadadasāo, i.e., "the ten (chapters) on the (pious a scetics) who have made an end", originally consisted of ten chapters, but is now divided into eight sections. The ninth Ariga, too, Anuttarovavāiyadasāo,

i.e., "the ten (chapters) ont he (pious ascetics) who have attained to the very highest (religions of heaven)", is now divided into three sections with thirty-three lessons, instead of the original ten lessons. As we learn from Thāṇamga 10, the original contents of these two Arigas were totally different from the present contents. On the ground of their form, if for no other reason, these works must be denied any claim to literary excellence. Not only are the legends related after a stereotyped pattern, but they often present merely a skeleton, which the reciter is left to fill in with set words and Phrases like cliches. For instance, one passage reads: "There was once a city named Campa, a shrine Punnabhadda, a forest. Description." What is, meant is, that a complete description of the city, the shrine and, the forest is to be inserted here, as it stands in the first *Upāriga*. Another instance is the part about the Thera Suhamma, one of Mahāvīra's disciples, where there is a mere indication that a detailed description of this holy man is to be given, which can be found in the sixth Ariga. In those cases where they are given in full, these "descriptions" (vannā, vaṃaka) are composed in an ornate style characterized by the conglomeration of long compound words. In all probability they belong to the earlier poetical portions of the Canon. Even the earliest commentaries read these descriptions as ornate prose. Prof. Jacobi attempted to find in them traces of a long metre not arranged to form stanzas, but himself remarks that, though they are metrical, they are more closely akin to prose than to actual poems. However, even where the descriptions are given in the text itself, e.g., that of the marriage of Prince Goyama, they are very tedions, and mostly consists of nothing but endless enumerations. The only time when the narrative becomes more poetical is, when the prince announces his resolve to become a monk, and his parents endeavour to dissuade him from this course. The words in which Goyama begs for admittance into the monastic order, in the eighth Ariga "The world is in flames, the world is being burnt by old-age and death" put us in mind of the famous "Fire Sermon" of Buddha. This Ariga is of importance from the point of view of Indian mythology and history of religion. because it embodies the Kṛṣṇa-legend in a corrupted Jaina version, related so as to suit Jaina requirements. The story of the downfall of the city of Dvaravatī and the death of Kṛṣṇa is told as in the Mahabharata, only Kṛṣṇa is made into a pious Jaina.

The ninth Ariga gives a hopelessly monotonous account of how the saints again and again attain to the highest perfection by starving themselves to death. To our minds at least, it is not very edifying to have the "beauty of asceticism" illustrated by a minute description of every single part of the body, accompanied by a series of drastic comparisons, in order to show how lean and emaciated it had grown. It is a remarkable contradiction: this exaggerated love of death on the part of the Jaina saint, and on the other hand, the equally exaggerated fear of killing any living thing, even though it might be only a worm or a green herb.

The tenth Ariga, the Panha-Vāgaraṇāim, "Question and Explanation", treats in ten "Gates" (dāra) firstly of the five "great vows" (not to hurt any living being, not to lie, not to steal, not to be unchaste, not to be attached to possessions), and then of the five virtues corresponding to these. It is a purely dogmatic presentation, which does not correspond either to the title of the work or to the table of contents in the Thāṇaṃga 10 and in the Naridī. thus a later work took the place of the old Aṇga, which had got lost.

The eleventh Ariga, Vivāgasuyam, i.e., "the text of of the ripening (of actions)", contains legends on the retribution of good and evil deeds after the manner of the Buddhist Karman stories in the Avadāna-Šataka and Karma-Šataka. Goyama Indabhūti, the oldest pupil of Mahāvīra, sees various unhappy people, and at his request Mahāvīra explains by what actions in a former birth the person has deserved such misfortune, through what bad rebirths the person has already passed, what is still in store for him, and by what means he may finally attain to a good rebirth again. There is, for instance, a certain Umbaradatta, who is afflicted with all manner of horrible diseases. Why? Because when he was a doctor, in a pervious existence, he had prescribed meat diet to patient, thus causing the killing of numerous living creatures. He will still be born again in worse incarnations, as a dog etc., but finally he will nevertheless be born again as a merchant.

In regard to the contents of the twelfth Ariga, the Ditthivaya ("Doctrine of the various views"), which

went astray, there is nothing beyond all kinds of information given in other texts. Five divisions of the *Ditthivāya* are distinguished: (1) *Parikammaṃ* (*Parikarmāṇi*); these are said to be 16 "Preparations" for the right understanding of the *Sūtras*, after the analogy of the 16 arithmetical operations; (2) *Sūtrāṇi*), 88 (4 x 22) *Sūtras*, in which the heretical doctrines are confuted; (3) *Puvvagae* (*Pūrvagatam*), the 14 *Puvvas*; (4) *Anuyoga*, legends of the *Tīrthakaras* and other great men; and (5) Cūliyā (Cūlikāḥ or "Addenda". The existence of twelve *Upānga*s is additional evidence of the fact that twelve *Angas* once existed.

There is an $Up\bar{a}nga$ to every Anga. Nevertheless the connection is merely external. The subject-matter of the twelve $Up\bar{a}nga$ is purely dogmatic and mythological, and they are not very interesting from a literary point of view.

The first *Upārīga* is the *Uvavāiya*. The first part describes the departure of Mahāvīra for the Puṇnabhadda shrine, and the pilgrimage of King Kuṇiya Bhiṃbhasāraputta to the same place in order to hear Mahāvīra's sermon. The sermon deals with the retribution of good and evil deeds in the four forms of existence (as denizens of hell, animals, human beings and gods), and also with the duties of monks and laymen. In the second part which has no connect on whatsoever with the first, Goyama Indabhūti journeys to the Master, in order to question him regarding the various re-births. It is then taught in the form of questions and answers, how every being which has done evil, has to bear the consequences, and the beings which have not sinned so grievously, reappear in a world of the gods under certain circumstances. The various circumstances which lead to the "attainment of an existence" (*uvavāya*) in one of the twelve worlds of the gods, are enumerated in 16 categories. The last site lies beyond the borders of the universe, and is destined for those who have attained to complete knowledge. These mansions of the blessed are described in great detail:

"The same form which the enlightened one had at the last moment, when leaving this earthly existence, that same form he has yonder, only that it is intensified in its soul-atoms. From the form which was large or small in the last existence, one-third will be lacking in the size and bulk of the enlightened one. They are without a body, densely compact of soul-atoms, they cherish a right belief and a right knowledge as regards objects in particular as well as in general. By reason of their being able to exercise omniscience, they recognize the nature of all things and their temporal qualities, with a never-ending, penetrating, keen glance of their intellect, they look in every place. Neither among human beings nor among all the gods is there such illimitable bliss as has begun for the enlightened one. The bliss of the gods, multiplied in duration to eternity, even though it were endlessly augmented in its fullness, is not so great as the blissfulness of liberation. As a savage, who becomes acquainted with the manifold beauties of a city, cannot describe them, because he lacks something with which to compare them, so, too, the blissfulness of the enlightened ones is incomparable, there is no comparison, and yet I shall mention something which can be compared with it in a certain sense. As a man, when he has eaten food containing all desirable ingredients, no longer experiences thirst and hunger, as though he had \$ated himself with the celestial beverage, so the enlightened ones who have come to the unique extinguishing, dwell \$ated for all time, rapturous in the possession of illimitable blissfulness without end."

As a work of literature, the second *Upāṇga, the Rāyapaseṇaijja*, is of greater importance. It is true that it begins with a long and tedious story, in the style of the *Purāṇas*, of the pilgrimage of the god Sūriyābha to Mahāvīra, but the nucleus of the work is really the dialogue, included in this tale, between King Paesī and the monk Kesī, concluding with the conversion of the free-thinking king. This is a splendid lively dialogue, in which Kesī endeavours to prove to Paesī that there is a soul independent of the body, whilst Paesī thinks that he has established the contrary by means of experiments. He says, for instance, that he has had a thief sentenced to death, cut up, and hacked to pieces, and found no trace of any soul: whereupon Kesī retorts that he is ever simpler than certain people who wanted to make a fire and chopped up the fire-sticks.

The next two *Upārigas* again take the form of questions (by Goyama) and answers (by Mahāvīra).

The third *Upāṅga Jīvābhigama*, the doctrine of the living and the lifeless things", gives in 20 sections a comprehensive classification of living creatures and a description of the universe in all its details (oceans, islands, palaces of gods, etc.). The section dealing with the continents (dīva) and the oceans (sāgara) is connected with the Jambuddīva-*Paṇṇatti*, and is an interpolation.

The fourth $Up\bar{a}nga$, Pannavana, which describes itself as a work of Ayya Sāma, also gives in 36 chapters a classification of the living beings, containing under "human being" geographical-ethnographic outline, in which the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}ns$ (ariya, $\bar{a}rya$) and the barbarians (milikkha, mleccha) are enumerated with their habitations.

The fifth, sixth and seventh *Upāngas* are "scientific" works dealing with astronomy, geography, cosmology and the division of time. Curiously enough, the *Candra-Paṇṇatti*, which is counted as the seventh *Upānga*, according to its title an astronomical theory of the heavens based upon the moon, is completely identical in all available manuscripts with the *Sūrya-Paṇṇatti*, the description of the heavens based upon the sun. Originally Sūriya it was most probably a text preceding the Sūriya-Paṇṇatti and a work separate from this text. The *Sūra-Paṇṇatti* contains a systematic presentation of the astronomical views of the Jainas. It deals with the orbits which the sun describes during the years, with the rising and setting of the sun, with the speed of the course of the sun through each of its 184 circuits, the light of the sun and moon, the measure of the shadow at various seasons of the year, the connection of the moon with the lunar mansions (*Nakṣatras*), the waxing and waring of the moon, the velocity of the five kinds of heavenly bodies (the sun, the moon, planers, *Nakṣatras and Tārās*), the qualities of the moonlight, the number of suns in Jambudvīpa, etc. As the work deals with the sun as well as with the moon, it almost looks as though the original *Candra-Paṇṇatti* had been worked into the *Sūra-Paṇṇatti*.

The sixth *Upānga*, the *Jambuddīva-Paṇṇatti*, "the description of *Jambudvīpa*", the central continent, contains the mythical geography of the Jainas. In the description of *Bharatavarṣa* (India), however, the legends of King Bharata occupy much space.

Upārigas 8-12 are sometimes also comprised as five sections of one text entitled Nirayāvalī-Suttam. Probably, they originally formed one text, the five sections of which were then counted as five different texts, in order to bright the number of *Upāngas* up to twelve. They are all of legendary contents, and deal with life in the beyond. The eighth *Upāriga*, *Nirayāvāliyāo*, the "series of hells", relates how the ten half-brother of the king of Campā; Kuṇiya or Ajātaśatru, wore killed by their grandfather Ceḍaga of Vesāli in the battle against him, and after their death were re-born in the various hells (niraya). The Buddhists relate that Ajātaśatru killed his father Bimbisara, the contemporary of Buddha, and that he was altogether a bad, cruel ruler. The Jainas endeavour to show him in a better light, obviously because he favoured their order. The ninth Upāriga, Kappāvaḍaṁsiāu, gives an account of the ten sons of the same princes whose story was told in the eighth Ariga: like their grandmothers they were converted to the ascetic life, and each one reached a different heaven. The tenth *Upāriga*, *Pupphiāo*, gives an account of ten gods and goddesses, who drove earthwards in their heavenly chariots (puspakāḥ) from their heavenly world, in order to pay homage to Mahāvīra, whreupon the latter tells Goyamā Indabhūti their previous history. In the eleventh Upāriga, Pupphacūliāo, ten similar stories are told, or rather they are indicated merely by catch-words. The twelfth *Upānga*, *Vaṇhidasāo*, deals with the conversing of the twelve princes of the Vṛṣṇi dynasty by the saint Ariṣṭanemi. The first of the legends deals with Nisadha, son of BalaDeva and nephew of Kanha (Kṛṣṇa) Vāsudeva, and is thus connected with Kṛṣṇa legend.

The ten *Painnas* or "scattered pieces" correspond to the Vedic Parisistas, and are, like the latter, mostly metrical, and deal with all kinds of subjects pertaining to the Jaina religion. The *Causarana* 'deals in 63 verses with the prayers by means of which one may take the "fourfold refuge" namely, that of the saints

(Arhat), the perfected (Siddha), the living pious (Sādhu) and of religion (Dharma). The first verses, however, prescribe the six daily duties (Sadāvaśyakam) essential for the purification of one's mode of life. Vīrabhadda (Vīrabhadra) is mentioned as the author of the Causaraṇa. There is a whole series of Paiṇṇas which deal with the voluntary death of the sage. Bhaṭṭaparinnā, the "dispensing with food", in 172 verses Saṃthāra, "the pallet of straw", upon which the sage, sick unto death, stretches himself in order to meditate, in 122 verses; Āura-Paccakhāna, "the sick one's refusal" (of the pleasures of life), and Mahā-Paccakhāna, "the great refusal", a formula of confession and renunciation in 143 verses. "The death of the fool" (bālamaraṇa) is the invountary death from various causes of ordinary people who are strangers to the Jaina doctrine, and also the suicide of such people. The "death of the semisage" is that of the lay adherent who, though he does not die by voluntary fasting, dies after making a confession, on a bed known to be his death bed. In contrast to these the "death of the sage" is the solemn passing of the man who is sick unto death, by means of voluntary fasting, after he has completed his confession and all vows and penances. Though the texts mentioned really contain nothing but the rules for attaining death by fasting, they are nevertheless in the form of didacio poems, and mostly in verse, and make use of plays on numbers and all kinds of figures of ornate poetry. They also contain sermons which are adomed with poetical comparisons, as for instance the following:

"Even as a needle through which a thread has been drawn, cannot get lost in the rubbish heap, so also a soul does not disappear in *Saṃsāra*. Souls which do not renounce the world, and which are lacking in character and good qualities, plunge into *Saṃsāra*, just as birds with a broken wing and without tail-feathers fall into the ocean. A dog which licks a bone, does not reach the marrow, and persuades himself that he is happy, whilst in reality he is only keeping his throat dry. Similarly, a man takes for bliss intercourse with women, which in reality, serves to exhaust him. A sinner who make a sincere confession is like the bearer of a burden, whose burden is taken from him."

In the Bhatta*parinnā* and the *Saṃthāra* there are also numerous legends of grievous sinners who did penance and became saints, of martyrs, of strange destinies in the cycle of re-births, etc.

The other *Painnas* deal with very varied themes; the Tamdula-Veyāliya, in mixed verse and prose, is a dialogue between Mahāvīra and Goyama on physiology and anatomy, the life of the embryo, the ten ages of man, the measure of length and that of time, the number of bones and sinews, etc. The Gamdā-Vijjhaya) or camdā-vejjhagā) deals in 174 verses with teachers and pupil, and with discipline is general. The Devindatthaa in 300 verses contains a classification of the kings of gods according to their groups, residences, etc. The contents of the Gamivijā, in 86 verses, are astrological. The Vīrathaa contains an enumeration in 43 verses of the names of Mahāvīra.

In reality, however as has already been observed above, the list of the Painnas is quite indefinite. A Gacchāyāra (Gacchācāra), "School rules", is also enumerated as a seventh or eighth *Painna*, and a *Maraṇa-Samāhī* (*Maraṇa-Samādnī*), "Death-Meditation", as a tenth Painṇa. The Gacchāyāra contains rules of life for teachers, monks and mins, and is an extract from the *Cheya-Suttas Mahā-Nisīha* and *Vavahāra*. The *Maraṇa-Samāhī*, of course, also belongs to the texts which deal with the "death of the sage". Sometimes, however, also 20 or more texts are counted among the *Paiṇṇas*.

The six *Cheda-Sūtras* did not, perhaps, form a group in the Canon until a late period, as it is not always the same texts which are placed in this group. The nucleus of this group, however, *Cheda-Sūtras* 3-5, belongs to the earliest portion of the Canon. These three texts are treated by tradition as one book (*śrutaSkarida*) and called *Dasā-Kappa-Vavahāra*. Side by side with an assortment of legendary material, the contents of the *Cheda-Sūtras* are what we have met with under the name of *Vinaya* in Buddhist literature, namely, the rules of life for the monks and nuns and the prescriptions as regards at one ments and penances, and in fact the entire discipline of the Order. The fourth *Cheda-Sūtra*, entitled *Āyāradasāo* ("the ten sections of behaviour"), also

known as *Dasāo or DasāśrutaSkarda*, is ascribed by tradition to Bhadrabāhu and the eighth section of this Dasāo has long been known by the title "*Kalpa-Sūtra* of Bhadrabāhu".

Bhadrabāhu is reckoned as one of the earliest teachers and most prominent authors among the Jainas. He is said to have been the sixth Thera after Mahāvīra, and to have died 170 years after Mahāvīra's nirvāņ, tradition has it that he was the last who knew the *Puvvas* that had gone astray, and he is said to have extracted the third and fourth *Cheda-Sūtras* from the ninth Puvva. Besides the *Dasāo*, the *Nijjutis* (*Niryuktis*), concise metrical explanations of certain parts of the Canon, are also attributed to him.

Three different texts are united to form a whole in the *Kalpa-Sūtra*, and it does not seem feasible that Bhadrabāhu was the author of all three. Section I contains the Jina-caritra, the biographies of the Jinas." The main portion of this section is the biography of Mahāvīra, which is told in great detail, with great differences, with descriptions in the *Kāvya* style and with exaggerations beyond all measure, reminding us of the *Lalita-Vistara*. The conception, transference of the embryo, and birth o Mahāvīra are presented in the same way as in the *Āyāraṃga-Sutta*. Then come the 14 dreams of Devānandā, the mother of Mahāvīra, and the interpretation of them, Mahāvīra's life at home, his twelve years ascetic life, and the activity which he displayed during nearly thirty years as an accomplished sage (*kevalīn*). The biographies of Mahāvīra's predecessors, the remaining Jinas down to Pārśva, which follow after the biography of Mahāvīra, are composed absolutely after the pattern of the last-mentioned, and were intended for liturgical purposes.

Section II of the *Kalpa-Sūtra* consists of the Therāvalia list of school (gaṇa), their branches (śākhā) and heads of schools (*Gaṇadhara*). This list goes far beyond Bhadrabāhu, hence could not possibly have been written by him. Inscriptions from the 1° century A.D. prove, however, that the names in this list are historical, and not mere inventions.

Section III is probably the oldest nucleus of the *Kalpa-Sūtra*. It contains the Sāmācārī or "Rules for the ascetics", namely, the ruels for the rainy season (Pajjusan). Another point in favour of the assumption that this is the oldest portion of the work, is the fact that the complete title of the "*Kalpa-Sūtra*" is *Pajjosavaṇākappa* (Sanskrit *Paryūṣaṇā-Kalpa*), though in reality it only fits this third part. Even at the present day the *Kalpa-Sūtra* is read aloud to the laymen every year during the *Pajjusan* days. The tradition which maintains that the Jinacaritra, *Therāvalī and Sāmācārī* were no contained in the original Canon under the title "*Kalpa-Sūtra*", but were added to the Siddhānta later by Devarddhi, is most probably right.

The old, genuine Kalpa-Sūtra is the fifth Cheda-Sūtra, which is also called Brhat-Kalpa-Sūtra or Brhat-Sādhu-Kalpa-Sūtra. It is the principal work on the rules and regulations for the monks and nuns. A necessary supplement to it is the Vavahāra, the third Cheda-Sūtra. The Kalpa-Sūtra teaches the liability for punishment, and the Vaval are the meting out of the punishment. The Nisīha-the first Cheda-Sūtra, containing regulations for punishment for various transgressions against the rules of daily life, is a later work. It has embodied the major portion of the Vavahāra in its last sections, and has numerous similar Sūtras in common with Cūlas I and I of the Ayāramga. Probably both these works originated in one and the same earlier source. The Pamcakappa does not appear to be in existence any longer. Sometimes, however, the Jīyakappa by Jinabhadra, a detailed, metrical compilation of the cases in which the individual transgressions are valid is called the sixth Cheda-Sūtra, though it is a later work on monastic discipline. The Pinda-Nijjutti and Oha-Nijjutti, which also deal with discipline, are also occasionally classed among the Cheda-Sūtras. A still later work than these two Nijjuttis is the Mahā-Nisīha-Sutta, which appears as the second, and sometimes as the sixth Cheda-Sutta, but which in reality can scarcely be attributed to the Canon with correctness. The principal contents of the text which we have before us and which perhaps took the place of an earlier canonical Mahā-Nisīha that went astray, are rules regarding confession and penance, which are emphasized as the most important steps towards liberation. Ethical sections deal with the suffering of the beings in connection with the doctrine

of *Karma*n, with the sin of breaking the vows, especially the vow of chastity, with good an had monks, etc. Legends, some of which are original inventions and others taken from earlier sources, are also inserted. Both language and subject-matter, e.g., the occurrence of Tantric sayings, the mention of non-canonical writings, etc., seems to indicate a late origin of this work.

Four canonical texts, the first three of which are not unimportant even from the literary point of view, are described as $M\bar{u}la$ - $S\bar{u}tra$. Above all, the first $M\bar{u}la$ - $S\bar{u}tra$, the Uttarajjhayana- $S\bar{u}tra$ as a religious poem, is one of the most valuable portions of the Canon. The work, consisting 36 sections, is a compilation of various texts, which belong to various periods. The oldest nucleus consists of valuable poemsóseries of gnomic aphorisms, parables and similes, dialogues and balladsówhich belong to the ascetic poetry of ancient India, and also have their parallels in Buddhist literature in part. These poems remind us most forcibly of the $Sutta-Nip\bar{a}ta$. Several sections are sermons in series of aphorisms, admonitions to the pupils, elaborations on the cares which the monk must endure with patience, on the four most precious things (birth as a human being, instruction in the religion, faith in the religion, strength in self-control), on Karman and sin, on the voluntary death of the sage and the involuntary death of the fool, on true and false ascetics, etc. We find here many saying which excel in aptitude of comparison or pithiness of language. As in the $Sutta-Nip\bar{a}ta$ and Dhammapada, some of these series of saying are bound together by a common refrain. A few instances are given here:

"As the burglar caught in the breach of the wall, perishes by the work the sinner himself had executed, thus people in this life and the next cannot escape the effect of their own actions."

"As a charioteer, who against his better judgement leaves the smooth highway and gets on a rugged road, repents when the axle breaks; so the fool, who transgresses the Law and embraces unrighteousness, repents in the hour of death, like (the charioteer) over the broken axle."

Section VII consists mainly of parables. Here we meet with the parable of the three merchants, which reminds us of the Biblical parable of the talents:

"Three merchants set out on their travels, each with his capital; one of them gained there much, the second returned with his capital, and the third merchant came home after having lost his capital. This parable is taken from common life; lean (to apply it) to the Law.

"The capital is human life, the gain is heaven; through the loss of that capital man must be born as a denizen of hell or a brute animal.

Whilst all the other sections are reckoned as a matter of course to be the words of Mahāvīra, Adhyāya VIII is expressly ascribed to Kapila, and forms an independent poetical discourse entitled "Kāvilīyaṃ". It contains admonitions to the monks to cast off all things which fetter the soul, to give up all hate, to renounce all the joys of life, and not to kill any living thing. There are sayings to be found there, such as are familiar to us in other branches of ascetic literature, e.g.:

"And if somebody should give the whole earth to one man, he would not have enough; so difficult is it to satisfy anybody."

"The more you get, the more you want; your desires increase with your means. Though two māṣas would do to supply your want, still you would scarcely think ten millions sufficient."

"Do not desire (women), those female demons, on whose breasts grow two lumps of flesh, who continually change their mind, who entice men, and then make a sport of them as of slaves.

"A houseless (monk) should not desire women, he should turn away from females; learning thoroughly the Law, a monk should strictly keep its rules."

The whole of Chapter XVI, too, is devoted to the commandment of chastity.

Just as in the Sutta-Nipāta, so, too, in the Uttarajjhayana we meet with a number of beautiful old Itihāsa dialogues and ballads of ascetic poetry. Here again we come across one of the Buddhist Pratyeka-Buddha legends in the beautiful ballad of King Nami, in which the ideal of asceticism is put forward as against that of the warrior and ruler. Likewise in the ballad Harikeśa, in a vivacious dialogue between a proud Brāhmīn and a despised ascetic of low-caste origin, the contrast is set forth between the formalism and ceremonialism of the priestly religion on the one hand, and the self-control and the virtuous life of the pious monks on the other. In the splendid dialogue too, between the Purohita and his sons, the ascetic ideal is set forth against the Brahmanic ideal as the better and higher one. The fact that we find this conversation also in the Mahābhārata, the Purāṇas and in the Jātaka, in part even literally, proves that it belongs to general Indian ascetic poetry. The Dialogue in Adhyāya XXIII, in which a pupil of Pāršva and a pupil of Mahāvīra converse regarding the advantages and difference of their respective creeds which are so closely related, is of interest from the point of view of the history of Jinism. In this instance the dialogue is carried on in part in the form of riddles, which remind us of the Brahmodyas. In the majority of these ballads, the dialogues are the principal part. Only in Adhyāya XXII the narrative portion of the ballad is the more interesting, firstly because the tale is connected with the Krsna legend by the names that occur in the legend, and secondly on the strength of the content itself, which is as follows:

In the city of Sauryapura there lived two mightly princes. The first, VasuDeva by name, had two wives, Rohiṇī and Devakī, each of whom bore him a son, Rāma and Kešva. The second, Samudravijaya by name, had a son Ariṣṭanemi by his wife Śivā. Keśava sought Rājīmatī, the daughter of a mighty king, as a wife for Ariṣṭanemi, and she is granted him. Ariṣṭanemi sets forth with great pomp to fetch his bride; but on the way he sees many animals confined in cages and enclosures, and teams, in answer to his question, that these animals are all to be slaughtered for his marriage-feast. He is so deeply shocked by this, that he resolves to take the vow of an ascetic. When Princess Rājīmatī hears of it, she breaks forth into lamentations but then resolves, in her turn, to become a nun. In her wandering as nun, she one day takes refuge in a cave during a torrent of rain. She believes herself to be alone, and undresses herself in order to dry her garment. Now the ascetic Rathanemi, Ariṣṭanemi's elder brother, had previously taken refuge in the same cave. Now when he sees Rājīmatī in her nude beauty, he is seized by passion and makes advances to her. However, she reproves him, and admonishes him not to wish to "drink that which another has spat out." Reminded of his vow by her forcible words, "he returned to religion, like an elephant spurred on by the goad."

As a contrast to these poetical passages, the last Adhyāyas (XXIV and XXVI-XXXVI) contain only dry sermons, partly catechistical enumerations, partly erudite elucidations of various points of Jaina dogmatics, and partly regulations for the life of the monks.

The second Mūlai-Sūtra is the Āvassaya or Āvassaga (Saḍāvaśyaka-Sūtra) which has come down only in conjunction with the Nijjutti. The Sūtra consists of six sections (Adhyāyas), which correspond to the six Āvassayas, i.e., the six "essential" (āvaśyaka) daily duties of a Jaina (desisting from all evil, glorification of the Tūrtharikarās, veneration of the teacher, confession, asceticism and renunciation of sensual pleasures). Attached to the formula with which these duties are performed there are stories which have come down in the old conmentaries.

The third Mūla-Sūtra, Dasaveyāliya, is said to have been written by a certain Sejjaṃbhava. Legend tells that this man was enlightened by the apparition of a piecture of the Jina, and left his house when his wife became pregnant. She bore a son, whom she named Mānaka. When the boy was eight years old, he asked after his father, and when he heard that the latter had become an ascetic, he went forth to seek him and become his pupil. As the father knew that his son had only six months more to live, he taught him the Dasaveyāliya

within that period, whereupon he gave up the ghost by means of deep meditation. The *Sūtra* consists of sayings pertaining to the monastic life, some of which remind us of the sayings in the *Dhammapada*, whilst others contain only rules for monastic discipline. Section II is connected with the ballad of Rājīmatī in *Uttarajhayaṇa*; they are verses in which she admonishes Rathanemi who wishes to seduce her. This *Sūtra*, too, is connected with an abundant narrative literature which is contained in the commentaries.

As the fourth Mūla-Sūtra the Piṃda-Nijjutti is usually mentioned, sometimes also the Oha-Nijjutti, and occasionally the Pakkhi. The Piṃda-Nijjutti and the Oha-Nijjutti are ascribed to Bhadrabāhu, and are sometimes counted among the Cheda-Sūtras. They treat of the pious life, and of subjects of discipline. The Pakkhi or the Pākṣika-Sūtra is a liturgy in verse for the Pakkhi-Padīkamaṇaṃ (Pakṣi-Pratikramaṇa), i.e., the fourteen days confession. The confession of the "five great vows" (mahāvrata), with which the work begins, also includes the worship of the "patient ascetics" (khamāsamaṇa), who are accounted the authors of the "sacred scriptures which stand outside the Aṅgas" (Aṅgabāhiram), and of the twelve Aṅgas, which gives rise to a solemn enumeration of all the sacred writings (suttakittanam).

The Nandī and the Anuogadāra are sometimes counted among the Paīnnas, but they are usually mentioned either before or after the Mūla-Sūtras as independent texts standing outside the groups. They are in prose with occasional verses. The Anuogadāra is in the form of questions and answers. The Nandī (probably "auspicious introduction") which, according to tradition, was written by Devarddhi, the redactor of the Siddhanta, in person, begins with a hymn of praise to Mahavira, and is followed by an enumeration of the twenty four *Tīrthankarās* and the eleven *Gaṇadharas* (heads of schools) and a Therāvalī (list of teachers) which ends with Dūsagani, the teacher of Devarddhi. Both works are huge encyclopaedias, dealing with everything which should be known by a Jaina monk. The survey of the Canon which they give, is of great importance. They do not, however, deal exclusively with themes pertaining to religion, but treat also of profane branches of knowledge. Both texts contain an interesting enumeration of the "false tradition" (micchasuam, mithyā-śrutam) or 'worldly'' (loie, laukika) sciences, which begins with Bhāraham (Mahābhārata) and Rāmāyanam, but mentions, besides some hitherto unexplained titles, among others Kodilayam (Kautilīya Arthaśāstra), Ghodayamuham (the Kāma-Sūtra of Ghota-kamukha, a predecessor of Vātsyāyana), Vaīsesiyam (the Vaiśeṣika system of philosophy), Buddha Sāsaṇaṃ (the doctrine of Buddha), Kāvilaṃ (the system of Kapila), Logāyatam (Lokāyata, system of materialism), Purāņa, grammar (vāgaraṇam), Bhāgavayam (Bhāgavata-Purāṇa), Pāamjali (Pataĥjali) mathematics (ganjam) and drama (nādayāī, nāṭakāni) and lastly "the four Vedas together with the Arigas and Upārigas". There are entire sections dealing with moods in poetry (kāvyarasa), including love lyrics in illustration of the subject, with grammar (compound words, wordformation), the division of time, etc.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

- 1. Write the concept of Shatkhandagama and write the introduction of Tikas of Shatkhandagama.
- Write the names of the parts and give brief introduction on any five.

OR.

Explain the Vacchanas of Ardhamagadhi Agama.

Short answer Type

- Write the names of the works of Acharya Kundakuda.
 - (a) Nataktrya (b) Astapahuda (c) Dashbhakti
- 2. Give introduction two Sauraseni Books namely Sadhvachaar and Sravakachaar.

- 3. How many types of Anga Bahaya Literature are there.
- Write the specific characteristic of prakhrinaka literature.

'Sh' is used / not used in Ardhamagadhi language.

Objective Type

1. Shatkhandagam has been written by 2. Veersenacharya has written tika on Shatkhandagam. 3. The name of first part of Shatkhandagam is Jaydhavala tika is written by Virsenacharya on 4. Versity Ladmin 5. The karta tillovapanniti is 6. Grihpich Acharya is name of 7.is called nataktraya. 8. Kundkund's nataktraya has tikas. 9. The wirter Bhagavati Aradhana is Mulachaar..... is the division of rights. 10. The number of purva are 11. The name of twelve part is 12. The language of Swetambar is 13. 14. The total number of slaka males in samvay is The context of Draupadi is found in 15. Uttradhyayan is a moolsutra / chedasutra. 16. Uttradhyayan is written in form of prose/poetry/proce poetry. 17. The karta pindniryukti is 18. The concept of Bhagwan Mahavir's penance is explained in 19.

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20.

Prof. Hiralal Jain, Contributions of Jaina Religion to Indian Culture: Ahmedabad, 2004

LESSON-14

Part- C: History of Jain Literature

LITERATURE PERTAINING TO THE EXPLANATION OF SCRIPTURES

Like-Atthakathāyen' (eight stories) written by Buddhaghoṣa on Pāli Tripiṭak, a great deal of explanatory literature like 'Niryukti', 'Sangrahani', 'Bhāṣya', 'MahāBhāṣya', 'Cūrni', 'Ţikā', 'Vivaran', 'Vivriti', 'Deepikā', 'Avacuri', 'Vivecan', 'Vyākhyā', 'Akṣarārth', 'Paĥjikā', 'Tabbā', 'Bhāṣā Ṭīkā' and 'Vācanikā' has been written on scriptural canons.

This vast literature is very often related to scriptural aphorism but at the same time it is independent too. Many forms of this literature are found. Some part of it belongs to the period next to the scriptures, particularly from the point of view of the scriptural aphorism like 'Nandī' and 'Anuyoga' that came later. This literature has been divided into four sections-

- 1. Niryukti (in which Prākṛta tales have been narrated).
- Bhāṣya (in which Prākṛta tales have been narrated).
- 3. Cūrni (in which Sańskrta-Prākrta prose (combined) has been narrated).
- Tīkā (in which Sariskṛta prose alongwith Prākṛta tales has been narrated).

By adding the word (scripture) to them, this literature comes to be known as *pañca*ngi (having five parts) literature.

1.0 Nizzuti(Niryukti)

"Niryukti" accupies a pride of place in explanatory books. That, in which the determined meaning in a Sutra is expatiated is known as 'Nityukti'. Nu vukti is a brief expatiation on scriptures written in Arya meter in Prākṛta tales. Many stories, examples and illustrations have been used in it, only mere mention is found here. This literature is so symbolic and brief that it cannot be understood properly without the help of Bhāṣya (commentary) and $Tk\bar{a}$ (annotation). That is why commentators have written commentaries on 'Niryuktis' too. along with the original scripture. The literature pertaining to Niryuktis seems to have been written on the basis of the literature prior to the ancient tradition of Teacher and Pupil. Being brief and in verse, it could be learnt by heart easily and the tales sic. could be quoted while preaching. 'PindaNiryukti' and 'OghaNiryukti' have been regarded as the basic sources of scriptures. This shows the antiquity of the Niryukti literature that Niryukties were being written at the time of Vallabhīassembly, five or six century B.C. Mallavādi. The author of 'Naya' Cakra' (fifth Vikram century) has quoted a story from Niryukti in his book. This fact too supports the above statement. Niryukties have been written on the following ten Sūtras: Ācāranga, Sūtrakrtānga, Sūrya Pragyapti, Vyavahār Kaip, Daśā Śārut Skandha, Uttarādhyayan, Āvaśyaka, Daśvaikālik and Rsibhāsit. Niryukties on Sūrya Pragyapti and Rsi Bhāṣit are not available now. Apart from the Niryukties mentioned above, an account of Pinda Niryukti, Ogh Niryukti and Ārādhanā Niryukti too is found. As has already been said, Pinda Niryukti, Daśvaikālika Niryukti and Ogh Niryukti are the parts of Āvaśyaka Niryukti. An account of Ārādhanā Niryukti is found in Moolācāra (5.82) and perhaps it has been included in Bhagwatī-ārādhanā and Maran samāhi etc. (A.N. Upadheya, Introduction to Vrhatkathā Kośa, Page 31). Pańckarma Niryukti is included in Vrhatkalpa Niryukti. According to Mahāniśeetha, a Niryukti was written on Paĥomangalśrut Skandha. According to the traditional belief, Bhadrabāhu (second) the knower of Astāngnimitta and incantations is supposed to be the

author of the Niryukties. He is different from Bhadrabāhu, the author of 'Cheda Sūtra', the last scripture omniscient. Unfortunately the Niryuktis of many scriptures and the tales of Bhāsayās got so mixed up that even the authors of the small commentaries on Jaina canons could not separate them. Many historical, semihistorical and mythological beliefs, elements of Jaina principles and the traditional thoughts and ideas are implied in Niryukties.

2. Bhāsa (Bhāṣya)

Like Niryukties, Bhāsyās too have been written in a brief style in Prākņa tales. Tales of the Bhāsyās like those of canons like *Vrhatkalpa* and *Dashvaikālika* have got very much mixed up, hence it is very difficult to study them separately. Like the language of the Niryukties, the language of Bhāṣyās too is mainly old $Pr\bar{a}kna$. At many places the use of $M\bar{a}gadh\bar{t}$ and $Sorsain\bar{t}$ dialects is also found. The main meter used is $\bar{A}rya$. The period of Bhāṣyās may be supposed to be 4th-5th century A.D. In Bhāṣya literature, Niśeetha Bhāṣya, Vyavahār Bhāsya and Vrhatkalpa Bhāsya occupy a very significant place. There is a presentation of many olden legends, worldly tales and the methods of conduct and thinking of the traditional unattached etc. in this literature. Serious study of these three Bhāṣyās is very necessary to know and understand the ancient history of the Jain śramana congregation in a proper way. Sanghdāsganī Ksamāśramana, who is different from Sanghadāsmani Vācaka, the author of Vasudeohindi, is famous as the writer of Kalpa Laghu Bhāṣya and pañ cakalpa Bhāṣya. There is an account of the follwoing Bhāṣyās -

- 1. Vrhatkalpa Laghu Bhāsya
- 2. Vrhatkalpa Vrhat Bhāsya (it is incomplte, it is available or ly upto third chapter and that too is Juranāra Laghu Bhāṣya Vyavahāra Vṛhat Bhāṣya (not available). Niśeetha Laghu Bhāṣya Niśeetha Vṛhat Bhāṣya Viśecā
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- Viśeṣāvaśyaka-MahāBhāṣya 8.
- 9. Jeet Kalpa
- 10. Uttarādhyayan
- Āvaśyaka Sutramool Bhāsya
- Āvaśyaka Sutra Bhāṣya
- 13. Ogha Niryukti Laghu Bhāsya
- 14. Ogha Niryuk: Maha Bhāsya
- 15. Daśavaikālika Bhāṣya
- Pinda Niryukti Bhāsya

The Bhasyas that are vast in size and form are eight in number. They are as given below-

- 1. Viśeṣāvaśyaka
- Vrhatkalpa Laghu
- Vrhatkalpa Vrhat
- 4. pañca Kalpa
- Vyavahāra Laghu 5.
- 6. Niśeetha Laghu
- 7. Jeet Kalpa
- 8. Ogha Niryukti Mahā Bhāṣya

These big Bhāṣyās have been written in two ways-

- (A) The Bhāṣyās on which no small Bhāṣyās were written directly on Niryukti, independent Mahā Bhāṣyās as Viśeṣāvaśyaka Mahabhāṣya and Ogha Niryukti Mahā Bhāṣya.
- (B) Those that were written keeping in view the Laghu Bhāṣyās, as Vṛhat Kalpa Bhāṣya (it is incomplete). Mahā Bhāṣyās were written on Niśeetha and Vyavahāra too but they are not available. Small Bhāṣyās have been writen on Āvaśyakās, Ogha Niryukti, Piṇḍa Niryukti and Daśavaikālika etc. in which tales of Niryuktis and Bhāṣyās have been mixed up.

3. Cunni(Cūrni)

In the explanatory literature written on scriptures, Cūrnis have a very significant place. They have been written in prose. They were written not in *Prākṛṭa* only but in *Prākṛṭa* mixed with *Saṅskṛṭa*. For this reason also the field of Cūrnis was wider than that of Niryukties and Bhāsyās. There being the prominence of Prākna in Cūrnis, it is quite proper to call their language as mixed Prākna language. Cūrnis have presented many worldly and religious tales, derivation of words in *Prākrta* and quoted many verses from *Sariskrta* and Prākrit. Niśeetha's Viśesa Cūrni and Āvaśyakās Cūrni occupy a very important place in Cūrnis. A good deal of matter related to Jain archaeology is found in them. A very good account of the customs, traditions, fairs, festivals, draughts, thieves and robbers, merchants who went abroad, the routes by which trade was carried on, food, clothes, and ornaments etc. of different countries is found in this literature that shows the attitude of maintaining public relations, skill of public-dealing and the wide study of the Jain Ācāryās. This literature is very useful from the point of view of folk tales and linguistics. JindacGanī, Mahattar, who belonged to a business class family and to a school of Buddhism and to a high order of society is known as the author of most of the Cūrnis. He was there at about the sixth century A.D. Cūrnis are available on the following scriptures-Ācārānga, Sutra Krtānga, Vyākhyā Pragyapti, Kalpa, Vyavahāra, Nišeetha, pahcakalpa, Dašā StrutaSkanda, Jeet Kalpa, Jīvabhigam, Pragyāpanā Šorreerpada, Uttarādhyayan, îva §yaka, Daśavaikālika, Nandī and Anuyoga Dwār.Viśesāvaśyaka

4. Tīkā (Annotation, Commentary)

In *Niryukti*, detailed annotations too have been written, like *Bhāṣyās* and *Cūrnis* on scriptures. They are very useful to understand the principles of scriptures. These *Tīkās* (annotations) are in *Sanskṛta*, though the parts related to tales have been quoted in *Prākṛta* too. It appears that annotations had come to be written even before the last *Vallabhi* assembly on scriptures. Acharya Agastya Singh, who lived in th 3rd century Vikram, has at many places in his work '*Dasavaikālika Cūrni*' has given hints of these ancient annotations.

Among the annotators, Yākini sunu Haribhadrasuri (705-775 A.D.) deserves to be particularly mentioned. He wrote annotations on *Daśavaikālika*, *Nandī* and *Anuyogadwāra*. He wrote a commentary on presentation also. In these annotations the author has dealt the tales section in *Prākrit*. Nearly a hundred years after Haribhadrasuri. Sheelanka Suri wrote annotations in *Sariskṛta* on *Ācārāṇga* and *Sutra Kṛtāṇga*. In these annotations, Jain conduct and ideology, and many important subjects related to the knowledge of the element have been discussed. The Ācāryās who have preserved the tales in the annotations like Haribhadra Suri, the names of Vadivetal Śāntisuri, Nemicandrasuri and Malayagiri are worth-mentioning. In the commentaries mentioned above, the tales of Bambyadutta and Agadadutta are so long that they may well be the subject of an independent book. Among other annotators are the scholars. Abhayadeosuri, Dronacharya, Maldhari Hemacandra and Malayagiri (of the 12th century) and Kshemkirti (1275 A.D.) and Śānticandra (1593 A.D.) etc. In fact explanatory literature on scriptural principles was written is such a profusion that it came to be recognized as an independent literature. This vast literature contributed a lot to the making of the literature that came next with the result that the literature of *Prākṛta* (including stories, biographies, religion and classical

literature) went on flourishing and developing. A belief introduction of Niryukti, $Bh\bar{a}sya$, $C\bar{u}rni$ and annotation $(t\bar{l}k\bar{a})$ is being given in the next pages.

Niryukti Literature

1.1 Ācārāņga Niryukti

Bhadrabahu Suri has written a *Niryukti* on the eight chapters (the seventh chapter has been annihilated) of the first section of texts and on the four appendices (the fifth appendix available independently in the form of *Niśeetha Niryukti*, that was included in *Niśeetha Bhāṣya*) in the form of 356 tales. Śeelānk has annotated them, adding the ten stories of the seventh chapter titled '*Mahāparinna*' kṣatriya

Following the Brahmanic tradition, the author of the *Niryukti* has mentioned seven classes of people *kṣatriya*, *Vaiśya*, *Brahmin*, cross-*kṣatriya*, cross-*Vaiśya* and cross *Kṣudra*. Of the nine cross-breeds, there is an account of 'Ambastha' (bron of brahmin father and *Vaiśya* mother), *Ugra* (born of *kṣatriya* father and *Kṣudra* mother), 'Ayogava' (born of *Kṣudra* father and *Vaiśya* mother), 'Magadh' (born of *Vaiśya* father and *kṣatriya* mother), *Sut* (born of *Vaiśya* father and *brahmin* mother), 'kṣatra' (born of *Kṣudra* father and *kṣatriya* mother), *Vaideha* (born of *Vaiśya* father and brahmin mother) and 'Candaal' (born of *Kṣudra* father and *brahmin* mother). Apart from them, there is also an account of 'shwapak' ('born of ugra father and *kṣatra* mother), Buccus (born of videh father and *kṣatra* mother), 'kukkuruk' (born of *Kṣudra* father and *Niṣad* mother). The form of directions has also been described. Then there is a description of earth-borns, water-borns, luminuous-borns, flora-bodies, mobile beings and air-borns and their kinds and sub-kinds. Passion has been said to be the cause of all the *karmās*.

1.2 Sutra Kṛtāṇga Niryukti

There are 205 *Prākṛta* verses in it. A pontiff (chief disciple) named Indrabhuti had expounded the Nalandia study on being asked a question by an unattached named Udaka in a garden called Manoratha near Nalanda outside the city of Rajgriha. This Udaka was a disciple of Pārśvanāth (the unnattached). He had put up a question regarding the vows of a votary (house holder). Ārdra kumār was a resident of Ardrakapura and on the occasion of Lord Mahāvīra's holy assembly, he had a discussion with Godhalaka, Tridandi and Hasti Tapasas. Here there is a mention of the *Sutra 'Risibhāṣita'*. There is also a mention of Gautama (*Govraṭīkā*), Candidevaka (Cakradhar prayah:-annotation), Varibhadraka (who took water only), the monks who believed in the ritual of *yajñas* and those who regarded water as pure, the kinds and sub-kinds of the persons believing in the theory of *karma* or non-action, believing in the theory of ignorance and in the theory of humility, getting acquainted with the unattached monks who are slack, attached or not observing the moral vows.

1.3 Süryaprajñapti Niryukti

It is said that Bhadrabahu had composed a *Niryukti* on *Sūryaprajhapti*, but according to annotator Malaygiri, that *Niryukti* got destroyed because of the effect of kalikal (the fourth and the last eon of creation according to Hindu mythology); He (Bhadrabahu) had, therefore explained only the *Sutras*.

1.4 Vṛhatkalpa, Vyavahāra and Nifeetha Niryukti

Bhadrabahu had written a *Niryukti* on *Vṛhatkalpa* and *Vyavahāra Sutra* too. *Vṛhatkalpa Niryukti* has got mixed up with the tales of *Laghu Bhāṣya*, written by Saṅghdāsgaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa and *Vyavahāra Niryukti* with the tales of *Vyavahāra Bhāṣya*. *Niryukti* on *Niśeetha*, being a chapter of *Ācārāṇga Sutra*, gets merged in *Ācārāṇga Niryukti*. As has been told, it has got mixed up with *Niśeetha Bhāṣya*.

1.5 Dašāšruta Skanda Niryukti

It is a small Niryukti on the ten chapters of Daśāśruta Skarida. The annotator, in the beginning has

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paid his respect to Bhadrabāhu, the last scripture-omniscient belonging to the olden lineage and the writer of Daśāśruta, Kalpa and Vyavahāra. Daśāśruta, Kalpa and Vyavahāra here have been taken as a whole. In the Niryukti of the eighth chapter, there is a lecture on Paryuṣana kalpa. Parivasana, Pajjusana, Pajjosamana, Uapavasa, Padhamsamosaran, Thavana, Jethoggaha etc. all are synonyms. There is also mention of the world 'Ajja Mangu'.

1.6 Uttarādhyayan Niryukti

Bhadrabahu has composed a *Niryukti* containing 559 tales on *Uttarādhyayana Sutra*. The *Niryukti* has been written on the 36 chapters of *Uttarādhyayana Sutra*. There is a mention of the tales of Gandhar śrāvaka, Acarya Sthulabhadra, The son of Tosli, Skandaputra, Saint Paraśar, Kalaka and Karkandu, who were all self-enlightened, and of Harikeśa and Mrigāputra etc. There is also a detailed expatiation of the eight heresies. There is also an account of the four disciples of Bhadrabahu going in hybernation in the cave of mount Vaibhar in Rājgriha and of Monk Survambhadra, bearing the severe bites of mosquitoes and ultimately meeting his death and the horses of Kamboja. Here and there, these are Magadhikas that provide a refreshing relief.

1.7 A vasyaka Niryukti

It is said that Acharya Bhadrabahu wrote Niryukties on the following ten Sutras-Āvaśyaka, Daśavaikālika, Uttarādhyayan, Ācārānga, Sutra-krānga, DaśāśrutaSkanda, Kalpa, Vyavahāra, Sūryaprajā apti and Rṣibhāṣita. Niryukti on Āvaśyaka occupies a pride of place among them. The six essential duties expounded in Āvaśyaka Sutra have been expatiated here. First of all, Haribhadrasuri wrote a commentary entitled 'Śiṣyahita' on it. Following him, Bhaṭṭāraka Gyansagar suri composed a short commentary, which was revised by Manvijay and published in 1965 from Surat by Seth Devchand Lalbhai Jain Kośa for the redemption of books. After that 'Āvaśyaka Niryukti Ṭikā' wruten by Malaygiri was published in three parts. Manikya Shekhar Suri wrote 'Āvaśyaka Niryukti Deepikā' that was published in three parts. Many more commentaries were written on this Niryukti. 'Viśeṣāvaśyaka Bhāṣya'is an independent book yet it may be said to be a commentary on 'Āvaśyaka Niryukti'. Thus vie find that a good deal of literature has been composed on this Niryukti.

Loyman has presented a critical appreciation of 'Āvaśyaka Niryukti' in his book 'Āvaśyaka Surveying'. There is a mention of 'Āvaśyanijjutti', it. 'Moolācāra' (6.193) written by Ācārya Vaṭṭakera, acknowledged by the title of 'Ācārāṇga' by the Digambarasect of the Jainas. Many tales of the two books are similar. It appears that 'Āvaśyaka Niryukti' is an ancient commentary in verse on 'Āvaśyaka Sutra' but later on many subsequent tales got included in it. Many tales from the original Bhāṣya were merged into it and many interpolations were added to it. Haribhadra suri, the sub-commentator of the six chapters equanimity, caturvinśatistava, abeisance (oUnu), penitential retreat, relaxation and penitential retreatóof the commentator of Āvaśyaka-Niryukti has admitted the original number of the Niryukti tales to be 1623, subtracting 253 Bhāṣyās and 450 interpolations out of the total Niryukti tales 2386.

1.8 Dašavaikālika Niryukti

Bhadrabahu has written a *Niryukti*, containing 371 tales on *Daśavaikālika*. The tales of *Niryukti* and *Bhāṣya* have got mixed up. The commentary has been made on the ten chapters-Drumpushpika etc. expounded in *Daśavaikālika Sutra*. Explanatin of the meaning of the *Sutra* has been given with the help of many worldly and religious stories and quotable quotes. Stories of Higushiva, Gandhavika, Subhadra, Mṛgāvatī, Naldiam, and GovindVācaka etc. have been given in it. Generally only the mention of the names of the stories is found in the tales of *Niryukti*es, to understand them properly it is necessary to take the help of short commentaries. GovindaVācaka was a follower of Buddhism, he accepted renunciation in order to gain knowledge and later on he became the follower of the Mahayan branch of Buddhism. Kunika (Ajāt-Šatru) once asked Goutam

Swami, Where are the rulers of vast empires born after death? The reply was, iIn the seventh hell. Kunika asked again, Where shall I go after death? Gautam Swami replied, The sixth hellî. We find a glimpse of discussion on the element in a logical style in the form of these questions and answers. A disciple put up his doubt, iWhy should not the householders keep food ready for the monks?

The Guru opposed this suggestion, saying

It does not rain for straws, straws do not grow for deer, and the trees having one hundred branches do not bloom for black bees. For the same reason, householder should not prepare food specially for monks.

Bhāşya-Literature

2.1 Nišeetha-Laghu Bhāşya

Saṅghdāsgaṇī has been regarded as the author of *Niśeetha, Kalpa* and *Vyavahāra Bhūṣya*. He is different from Saṅghdāsgaṇī vācaka, the writer of *Vasudevahindi*. Many tales of *Niśeetha Laghu Bhāṣya* are similar to *Vṛhat Kalpa Laghu Bhāṣya*. This *Bhāṣya* has been written in 20 enunciations containing 6703 stories. In the beginning, in the back-ground, an interesting story of four fools Sasa, Flasaadha, Muldeo and Khanda is given.

A book titled 'Dhuttākkhānam' (Dhoortākhyānaka), the author of which is unknown, is said to be the basis of this story. In the Bhāṣya, this story has been given in a very short form but the commentator has presented it in detail. Later on this story came to be the basis of the storybook 'Dhuttākkhāna' written by Haribhadrasuri.

Many important subjects related to the conduct and ideology of the monks have been expounded through tales and stories. For example, narrating repentance, it has been said that to avoid the sermon to be laughed at, for restraint, to save themselves from thieves, in an adverse circumstance and region and for the sake of a newly-initiated monk, there is a provision for telling a lie. The same applies to appropriation of non-given. On the arousal of such a difficult situation, it has been said-

(If the monk is unattached in every way, he remains free from fault. A very little atonement is required if anything is done in a very torturous way.)

In *Niścetha Bhāṣya*, there is an account of many subjects related to conduct, ideology and customs and traditions. For example, at that time, non-aryans like Pulinda, killed a monk while passing through a forest, taking him to be an Arya. Merchants travelled to far off lands with goods of various kinds for trade and business, feasts were or Gaṇīzed with great pomp and show. *Cowri(a small shell), Kagni, dinār and kevadiya* were used as coins. Tanks called *Talodaka* in Tosali and *Tapodaka* in Rajagriha were very famous. A fire-pot was always ablaze in the marriage hall of Tosali, where many eligible young bachelors and maids gathered for the purpose of marriage

Here an account of *Vṛhatkalpa*, *Naṇdī Sutra* and Siddhsen and Govinda Vācaka is found. Govinda Vācaka was defeated for 18 times in debate, later on he wrote 'Govind *Niryukti*', for the realization of one-sensed beings. 'Ācārāṇga' etc. are presented as an example of knowledge and Govind *Niryughi* as an example of philosophy.

2.2 Vyavahāra Bhāşya

Like *Niścetha* and *Vṛhatakalpa Bhāṣya*, *Vyavahāra Bhāṣya* too is very vast in bulk. Moloygiri has narrated it. The tales of *Vyavahāra Niryuti* and *Vyavahāra Bhāṣya* have got mixed up. There is an account of criticism, repentance, 'gaccha', title, roaming, death, sub-shelter, instruments and images as well as of the conduct and ideology of monks, repentence and customs and traditions of different countries in tenenunciations.

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In the first enunciation a monk has been advised to appreciate words as used in a phrase or a sentence, expatiating them in an innocent way- $\bar{A}c\bar{a}r\bar{a}nga$ (As a child innocently tells whether a thing is good or bad, a monk should, getting detached from illusion and variity, criticize something before an $\bar{A}c\bar{a}rya$.

Necessity of an Ācārya to maintain and manage the resident unit of monks has been expressed. There can be no dance without a dancer, no woman without a hero, no cycle can work without an axis. In the same way no order can do without an Acharya, the head of the order. To protect and save his order by providing medicines etc. is essential for an Acharya. As a king devoid of strength, vehicle and chariot cannot save his kingdom, in the same way an Acharya devoid of knowledge (*Sutra*) and medicine, cannot save his order.

In the second enunciation, there is an account as to how insane and sick and fickle-minded monks should be nursed. In the third enunciation, the ability and disability of the bearers of the titles like Ācārya, Upādhyāya, founder and venerable etc. has been considered. At every step, monks have been cautioned to guard against women. Following Manu, the writer of the *Bhāṣya* too is not in the favour of granting any liberty to women

(In childhood, a woman is under the control of her father, when married, of her husband, and if she happens to be a widow, of her son. She can never be independent).

In the fourth enunciation, the method of roaming of the monks has been explained. In the event of breaking out of diseases, they had to face a lot of difficulties while going from one place to another. There was a danger of thieves, wild animas, snakes, creatures living in holes, guards, persons having jealously and malice, and thoms. They were humiliated on being defeated in debates in the court of a king.

In the fifth enunciation rules regarding the roaming of nurs have been expatiated and founding nuns etc. have been discussed. The city of Mathura had a great importance for the Jainas. The festival of mounds (Lrwieg) was celebrated there. According to Jain thinking, a jewelled mound was made by the gods in Mathura and there was a dispute over it between the Jainas and the followers of Buddha. Bharuyakatcha (now known as Bharoncha) and *Gunsil caitya* (about three mills away from Rajagir and at present known as Gunava) were also considered places of great importance.

In the sixth enunciation, the procedure of receiving food from the relatives of the monks has been explained. The seventh enunciation deals with the procedure of receiving monks and nuns belonging to other sects in Jaina sect. There is an expatiation of the procedure of purification at the death of the votaries. If the monk bearing the dead body was alone, he could go elsewhere and seek help from monks that were free from sudden agitations, householders, women, wrestlers, persons rearing elephants and potters etc.

As the protector of sermons, an example of monk Viṣṇukumār has been given, who pacified the disturbance aimed at the order of Jain monks with his super natural power. In the eighth enunciation, the method of receiving and returning the material for sleeping and other such things has been explained. The limit of food has been expatiated and the characteristics of the monks who are abstemious, who live on water only, who live only on half the diet, who undereat, who slightly undereat and who take the food that is valid for a monk, have been explained. In the 9th enunciation, the rules regarding the food that should be received or should not be received from the relatives and the friends of the monk-residence have been explained. In the 10th enunciation, there is an expatiation of layman's renunciation stage of the young and adamantine stages. Then, five kinds of convention (practice), the procedure of the initiation of the young and ten kinds of selfless services have been explained. Regarding the people of different places, it has been said that the people of Magadha, understand things just by a mere hint, the people of *Kośal* by seeing and the people of *pañcal* grasp a things by hearing half of the conversation whereas the persons in the south do not understand a thing unless it is told them clearly.

2.3 Vṛhatkalpa Laghu Bhāşya

Sanghdāsgaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa is the creator of this *Bhāṣya*. The *Sutra*s of *Vṛhatkalpa* have been expatiated in detail in it. Besides background, it is divided into six enunciations. In the background of *Vṛhatkalpa-Laghu Bhāṣya*, there are 805 stories in which five-fold knowledge, rationality, assembly on canonical texts, dry land, plastering of the bowl, alms begging round, safety of the basati receiving clothes, apprehension, roaming etc. have been dealt with. Studying theories on views is prohibited for women. The stories 'The wife of a votary', 'Pertaining to seven steps', 'konkandaraka', 'Mongoose', 'The fair of kamala', 'The courage of Shamba', and 'The anger of Śreṇika' have been given in it.

In the second part of this *Laghu Bhāṣya*, there are 806-2124 tales on 1-9 aphorisms of the first enunciation. A detailed explanation of *Pralamba Sutra*, Adhwa Dwar, Glandwar, village, city, small village, mud-house, karbataka, madamba, pattan, the form of jina-modelled monk, holy assembly, broad and narrow feelings, topic of Gaman, the position of commune-dweller monks, topic of whisk brooming, topic of alms begging, and of chappel, the defects of travelling by chariot, the procedure of going to a vaidya, roaming of female unattached ones, and the topic of hermittage etc. has been given in them.

Four kinds of chapels have been mentioned-analogical, auspicious, eternal and bhaghi. In Mathura, the idol of Lord Enlightened was established in the newly-constructed houses. There is a detailed discussion on the treatment by a vaidya of a monk suffering from some disease. Here the commentator has given an account of coins used, such as *kakini* (used in the south), *Drumma* (used in millamal and dinar) or *Kevadik* (used in eastern countries). There is a detailed account of the roaming of the female unattached ones.

In the third part there are 10-50 aphorisms of the first enunciation of *Vṛhatkalpa Sutra*, on which there is a commentary of 2125-3239 stories. Circumference, Apangrihadi, the topic of things covered with water, the place for worship, *Ghatimatraka*, *Cilimilika*, *Dakteera*, *Citrakarma*, *Sagarikanishra*, *Sagarikopashraya*, Restricted bed, Living in the midst of the Lord of the house, Vyavasaman, Car, Vairajya Virudha Rajya, Apprehension, Ratribhagha, Receiving the night dress, *Hritahritīkā*, Adhwagaman, feast, place for thinking, place for roaming and the region of the Aryans have been explained in them. Ten stages of work have also been described.

In the fourth part, there is a commentary of 3240-3678 tales on the aphorisms of the second enunciation. upāśraya, sagarikapariharika, ahriţīkā nirhritīkā, anshika, pujyabhagopakarana, upadhi and rajoharan etc. have been explained in them. Alway's being alert and on the guard has been advised.

There is a commentary of 3679-4876 stories on the 1-31 aphorisms of the third enunciation. There is an account of upāśraya Prawia, hide, kritsnakritsna vastra, different and non-different clothes, Avagrahantaka, Nishra, Trikritsna, Holy assembly, Yatharatna dhik vastra paribhajna, kritīkarma antargrahasthanadi, Bed and accessories, sādharmīka vagraha and army in them. So far as garments are concerned, there is an accodunt of cloth stuffed with cotton, blanket, Dadhigal, Poorika, Viralika, Upadhana, Tuli, AlinGaṇīka, Gandopdhan and Massoraka. As regards shoes, there is an account of Ekput, Sakalkritsna, Dwiput, Khallaka, Khapoosa, Vagura, Košaka, Jangha and Ardha Jangha.

About coins, it has been said: 2 Sabharaka of the Dweep = 1 Rupyaka of Uttarapath.

- \mathbb{Z} Rupyakas of Uttarapath = 1 Rupyaka of Pataliputra.
- 2 Rupyakas of Dakshinapath = 1 Nelaka of Kanchipur.
- 2 Nelakas of Kanchipura = 1 Rupyaka of Pataliputra.

In regions like Thuna, there was a custom of wearing cothes, the borders of which are cut off. There is an account of the bowls of Jina-modelled monks. The material binding the bowls. Putting the bowl somewhere,

Patra-kesaraika, Patal, Rajastran, Golchaka. Three pieces of cloth, whisk broom of woolen tufts, and mouthmask. Observance of conduct and modesty have been said to be the ornaments of a woman-

(A woman does not get adorned with ornaments like necklace etc. Observance of conduct and modesty are her ornaments. When in assembly, refined but uneulogical language is not admired.

The essence of Jaina discipline is-

(Wish for others what you wish for yourself. Don't wish for others what you don't wish for yourself.) This is Jaina teaching.

There is death ahead; it is inevitable; so do today whatever is to be done.

(It is better to do today whatever is to be done, Death is approaching, though it is not visible. Make haste in observing the right path, do not be non-vigilant even for a moment, Don't wait even for the noon).

In the fifth part, there is a commentary of 4877-5681 tales on the 1-34 aphorisms of the fourth enunciation. Topics like Anudghatīkā, pārancika, Anvasthāpya, Pravajanādi, Vachana, Sangyapya, Glan, Kalkṣetratikranta, Aneṣaneeya, Kalpakalpasthita, Ganantaropasampata, Viśwaghhawan, Adhikarana, Pariharika, Mahanadi, Upāśrayavidhi etc. have been explained in them. In Anudghatīkā aphorism, masterbation, sexual intercourse and taking food at night have been said to be grave faults for which one has to undergo severe atonement. In pravajanadi aphorism, a pandak, an impotent person and a vaṭīkā have been said to be unfit for initiation. In Viśwagbhawan, aphorism, the method of Parishthapana of the monk who is dead, has been explained. In Mahanadi aphorism, the rules for the male and female unattached ones for crossing the big rivers like the Ganga, the Yamuna, the Saryu, the Vosi and the Mahi have been dealt with.

There is a commentary of 5682-6059 tales on the s1-12 Sutras of the fifth enunciation. Topics like Brahmapai, Adhikaran, Sanstārita-Nirviciktsa, Udgar, the rules laid down for taking food, Panaka Vidhi, Protection of the Brahma, Moka, Parivasita, Practice and Pulākbhagha have been explained in them.

In the sixth part there is a commentary of 6060-6490 tales on the 1-20 *Sutras* of the sixth enunciation. Topics like word, prastaar, references like kantaka etc., citadel, insane mind, *Parimantha*, and *kalpasthiti* have been explained in them. There is a mention of a stupa (Lrwi) in Mathura, constructed by Dev. Suppose a merchant goes on a voyage with his goods loaded on a ship and unfortunately the ship sinks with all the goods in the sea, in that condition he is not bound to repay the money that he had borrowed. Such a settlement is known as the justice of the trade. The unattached ones, who wear torn clothes or are scantily dressed are also known as non-clothed monks. There is a mention of eight kinds of *Rāj-Piṇḍa*.

2.4 Vṛhatkalpa-Vṛhat Bhagya

This *Bhāṣya* is available in incomplete state only. The first two enunciations-introduction and the beginning are complete and the third enunciation is incomplete. Only the topics covered in *Vṛhatkalpa-Laghu Bhāṣya* have been explained in detail here. Just see, for example-

2.5 Jeetakalpa Bhāşya

This is a commentary on Jeetkalpa Bhāṣya composed by Jinbhadragaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa. This commentary is actually a collection of the tales contained in Vṛhatkalpa-Laghu Bhāṣya, Vyavahāra. Bhāṣya, paḥcakalpa-Mahābhāṣya and Piṇḍa-Niryukti. Topics like five-fold knowledge, Prāyaśacita-sthāna, method of abandonment of food, characteristics of fast unto death and complete stoppage of movement, the forms of restraint and vigilence, violations of conation philosophy, conduct, the form of origination, characteristics of the desire for acquisition, and the form of charity etc. have been explained in it. In this commentary, examples of destroyer for anger, minor monk for pride, ashaadhabhuti for illusion, singh-keshar for greed, willing destroyer

for modak (a type of Indian sweet), a Boddha wroshipper for learning, Pādlipta and Murunda Raj for incantation, a pair of minor monks for short commentary and the monks residing at Brahma Island have been given.

2.6 Uttarādhyayan Bhāşya

In the *Paiya* commentary written by Shantisuri, only a few tales of the *Bhāṣya* are available. Like the stories of the other commentaries, the stories of this *Bhāṣya* too have got mixed up with *Niryukti*. Topics like the origination of *Botika*, slightly lapsed monk, *Bakuśa*, monk having imperfect conduct, and the form of unattached and omniscient in 13th stage etc. have been explained in it. There are only 45 stories in it.

2.7 Ā vašyaka Bhāşya

Mool Bhāṣya, Bhāṣya and Viśeṣa-vashyaka Bhāṣya have been written on Āvaśyaka Sutra. In the Niryukti of this Sutra there are 1623 stories whereas only 253 tales are available in the Bhāṣya. The stories of the Bhāṣya and the Niryukti have got mixed up here also. Viśeṣāvaśyaka Bhāṣya has been written by JinbhadralgaṇīKṣamāśramaṇa and it relates only to the first chapter titled equanimity. It contains 3603 stories. There are the statements of Caran-Karnānuyoga, in Kalikashruta, Dharmkathānuyoga in ṛṣi-Bhāṣit, and Dravyānuyoga in the theory of vision. Mahākalpashruta etc. are said to have developed from this theory of vision. Aśwamitra, the disciple of Kaundinya, has been said to be very expert in Naipunika Vastu under Anupravād Poorva. There is a detailed description the lives of self-enlightened ones like concealments and Karkandu etc. Self-study has been said to be prohibitted if an egg falls and breaks in the vasati of a monk.

2.8 Daśavaikālika Bhāşya

The 63 tales of *Daśavaikālika Bhāṣya* have been given alongwith the commentary written by Haribhadra. Topics like purification of logical reason, direct and indirect knowledge, basic restraints and secondary qualities have been explained in those tales. Living being (tho) has been proved with many evidencesó in what way worldly, vedic and Boddha people accept the living beingó

The worldly people regard soul to be impenetrable, and that cannot be out off. It has been written in the Veda, One who is burnt with one's faeces is born as a jackal; the offspring of the one who is burnt without faeces is uninjured.

And Lord Buddha says, iI was an elephant in my previous birth.

Thus, the world has been said to be of three kinds from the point of view of deity, human being and animals and plants.

2.9 Piņda Niryukti Bhāşya 💉

There is a commentary of 46 stories on *Pinda Niryukti* in which topics like *pind*, *ādhā karma*, *Audešika*, mixed jaat, subtle *prābhatik*, *višodhi and Avišodhi* topics related to the duty of a monk have been discussed in brief. There is an account of Candragupta, the king of Patliputra and Cāṇakya, his minister. On one occasion, when there was a famine in Patliputra, a Suri named Susthita thought that it would be better if he installed his disciple named Samridha on the post of Suri and to send him to a safe place. He preached him yoniprabhrata in secret but two junior monks overheard him and thus they came to know the method of becoming invisible by applying collyrium to eyes. Samridha became a Suri but the food that he got by begging was not sufficient. The result was that Samridha grew weaker and weaker day by day. When the minor monks came to know this, they decided to dine with Candragupta by applying collyrium to their eyes and becoming invisible. Both of them began to do so and to dine with Candragupta. As his food was shared by the two monks Candragupta did not get enough of it and grew weaker and weaker day by day. Cāṇakya tried to find out the reason of his getting weak. He scattered the powder of bricks in the dining hall. After sometime he saw the foot prints of human beings on the powder. He immediately understood that two men who were not to be seen, came there

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daily and ate the food. One day he closed the door and filled the room with smoke. Because of the smoke, water came out of the eyes of the minor monks and the collyrium was washed away. Now they were clearly visible. Candragupta felt remorse but Cāṇakya handled the situation. He went to the place where the —Ācārya lived and told him everything. The two monks had to repent.

2.10 Ogha Niryukti Laghu Bhāşya

In the 322 stories of the commentary on Ogha Niryukti, topics like traditional, physique vows, duties of a monk, restraint, selfless service, self-control, meditation, vigilence, feelings, stages, control over-senses, whisk brooming, mental resolve, exposition, relaxation, false accusative and requisities have been explained. Knowledge of the element has been given through the examples of the stories of Dharma Ruci and Badari etc. It is told that the monks made use of astrology and other sciences too. It has also been mentioned that when the monks applied limiment to their bowls, some stray dog would come and lick them, here by the term the commentator means dog). Considering auspicious and inauspicious dates, conduct and constelletion of stars, the sight of Cakradhara, pale, Boddha and naked monks was considered to be inauspicious. There was a custom of keeping the dead body of a monk at a dry groud or in an empty place, observing the procedure of purification. If in a river there is knee-deep water, a monk must cross it by putting one foot in the water and lifting the other. Here the definitions of the words 'knee-deep', 'Naval-deep' and 'above naval' have been given. Receiving alms from an eight-year old child, a servant, on old man, an impotent person, one who is drunk and a lame person, a woman who is grinding, thrashing grain and who is pregnant is prohibitted. A monk must take food when it is still light, eating food in darkness is not allowed. The thieves of Malwa kidnapped people. Monks have been advised to beware of them. There is a mention of the terrible flood in Kanchanpura city that was in Kalinga.

2.11 Ogha-Niryukti Vṛhat Bhāşya

The topics expounded in *Ogha-Niryukti-Laghu Brāṣya* have been explained in detail in this *Bhāṣya*. Nothing is known about its writer. This *Bhāṣya* has not been published.

2.12 pañca-kalpa Mahā Bhāşya

This Bhāṣya has been written as a lecture on pañcakalpa Niryukti, pañca kalpa-Laghu Bhāṣya is also included in it. It is a part of Vṛhatklapa Bhāṣya as pañca Kalpa Niryukti is a part of Kalpa Niryukti. The author of this Bhāṣya is Sanghadasgaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa. There is a brief expatiation of the five kinds of kalpas in 2666 tales. A copy of this Bhāṣya, prepared by Murii Punyavijayji in Roman script has been published by Indologia, Barolinensis on 5, 1977

3. Cūrņi Literature (Short Commentaries)

3.1 Ācārāņga Cūrņi

This short commentary has been written on the basis of the *Niryukti* storeis. Hence those very subjects have been expatiated here the types of which are availabel in *Ācārāṇga Niryukti*. Since olden times, Jindas Gaṇī Mahattara has been regarded as the author of this commentary. In it, at many places, the difference between the expressions of Nāgārjuna and this commentary has been explained with proof. In between many worldly verses from *Sariskṛta* and *Prākṛta* have been quoted. A particular style has been adopted to make each and every word eclear. Words like 'ewv', have been explained in *Prākṛti*-

The meaning of characteristics of different kinds of clothes and school etc. have been explained next.

The customs and traditions of (region nearabout the river Godavari) have been described. It is very cold in the month of *caitra* in. Mangoes are sliced and then dried in the sun. These dried slices are known as

. Kumbhi Cakra is said to be the of this region. There is also a mention of Konkan where it is raining constantly.

3.2 Sutra Kṛtāṇga Cūrņi

This commentary has also been written on the model of Niryukti. Different versions of Nāgārjuna's expressions have been given here and there in this commentary. There is a mention of the customs and traditions of many countries. For example, studying in Sindhu region is prohibitted, murdering a man is as condemnable as the killing of a brahmin. There is as excess of ghats in areas like Tamralipto. It was the custom in the tribe of the Mallas that if a malla died as an orphan, his funeral was performed by all the Mallas. In the reference of Ārdraka kumar, he had sent some gifts to Abhaya kumar, the son of Shrenika, who lived in Ārya Deśa in order to make friends with him. There is also a mention of the Jatakas (tkrd) of the Boddhas.

3.3 Vyākhyā Pragyapti Cūrņi

This is a very short commentary and has not yet been published.

3.4 Jambu Dweep Pragyapti Cūrņi

The commentory on this book has not been published.

3.5 Nišeetha Višeşa Cūrņi

yersity Ladm The commentary written on Niscetha has been called a special commentary. Its author is Jindas Ganī Mahattar. It is not available. A mention of *Pinda Niryukti* and *Ogha Niryukti* is found in it which shows that it was written after the composition of the two Niryukties. Exceptions to the rules related to the conduct and ideology of monks have been described in it. Just read the story of Sukumalia given in the eighth enunciation.

Jit Shatru, the son of Jarā kumār, who was the elder brother of Vasudeo ruled over Vanvasi city in Ardha-Bharat. He had two sons-Sa Sa Aa (I I v) and Bha Sa Aa (Hk I v) and a daughter named Sukumalia. They all got initiated when the entire family was detroyed in an epidemic and becuase of some other reasons. Sukumalia grew up into a very beautiful and delicate young woman. When she went for alms begging, many young men followed her. Thus she became a victim of her own beauty.

Young men came even into her residence. The female guard requested the head monk to protect the newly initiated young girl from the young men. The Guru asked Sa Sa Aa and Bha Sa Aa to guaid their sister. They began to live in a separate house with her. Both the brothers were very brave and great warriors. They could fight a hundred warriors. When one went for alms begging, the other guarded his sister. He took to task the young men who came there and tried to tease his sister. Thus both the brothers taught a lesson to many young men.

Now, in order to save her brothers the trouble of guarding her, Sukumalia accepted fast unto death. In a few days she grow very weak and became unconscious. Her brothers thought that she was dead. One of them lifted her in his arms and the other took her instruments. By the touch of a male and the gush of cold night wind, she regained consciousness, yet she remained silent and did not utter a word. The two brothers put her somewhere and went to their Guru. In the meanwhile Sukumalia came to her full senses. It so happened that a merchant passed that way. When he saw Sukumalia, he was attracted to her by her beauty and accepted her as his wife. Many days passed.

After a long interval of time, the two brothers, when they were on their round of alms begging, by chance came to her house. With due respect, Sukumalia offered them alms. Even after receiving alms, the two brothers did not leave, they kept on looking at her. Sukumalia asked then, iWhy are you looking at me like that? They said, iWe are looking at you because you look jsut like our sister, but she is dead. We have

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performed her last rites with our own hands. Sukumalia said, iBelieve me, I am Sukumalia, your sister. Then she told them the whole story. The two brothers initiated her again when she grew old.

There is a story of a monk given in the introduction. This story shows how Jain monks protect their order in difficult situations. Once, a certain monk, with his group of disciples, reached Atavi in the region of Konkan in the evening. There were many wild animals-lions, tigers etc. in Atavi. The Acharya asked a monk, who belonged to Konkan, to keep watch at night. All the other monks went to sleep peacefully. In the morning they all came to know that the monk, who had kept watch at night, had been killed by three lions. The Ācārya accepted him in his orderafter performing the ritual of repentence. At some other place in the fourth enunciation, there is an account of giving shelter to and hiding his disciple, who was a prince and who had become his disciple by applying the liminent of the seeds of tamarind, to save him from the wrath of the king.

The rule of king Samprati has been said to be better than that of the three other kings Candragupta, Bindusaar (298-273 B.C.) and Aśoka (272-232 B.C.). That is why Mourya Dynasty has been compared to the size of a grain of barley. It is low at the two ends and is elevated in the middle. In the same way, Samprati has been said to be the middle portion of the Mourya Dynasty. King Samprati sent his messengers to many countries and made 25° countries and Andhra, Dravida and Kudukka (the regions lying on the border) and made them suitable for the roaming of the Jain monks. The story of Kālkācārya has been given in detail in the commentary on Višeṣa Nišeetha.

Kālkācārya was very unhappy and annoyed when Gardbhilla, the king of Ujjaini, took away his sister by force and put her up in his seraglio. He took a vow to take revenge on him. He went to Parascool (Iran) and invited the Shah of Iran to come over to India. In due course of time Shaka dynasty came into existence. At the request of Kālka, the king (Shah) of Iran attacked king Gardbhilla and uprooted his dynasty. After that Kālka initiated his sister again in his order. The story of Pradyota, the king of Ujjaini has also been given here in detail. In this reference, the story of the orgination of Pushkar Teertha (near Ajmer) has also been given.

There is an account of the customs and traditions related to the conduct and ideology of monks. In the region of Latione could marry the daughter of one's maternal uncle. The people of Malawa and Sindhu were supposed to be very harsh in speech and the people of Maharashtra were supposed to be very talkative.

The unattached ones, Shakyas, Tapasas, Garriks and Ājīvakas all these five were regarded as monks. Regarding dogs, it has been said that the deities, residing at Mount Kelas live on this earth as dogs. There is also a mention of Shakas, Yavanas, Malwas and Andhra-damils.

3.6 Daśāśruta Skanda Cūrot

Like the *Niryukti* of *Daśāśruta Skanda*, its commentary too is short. It has been written following the *Niryukti*. There is a slight difference in the original text and in the text of the commentary. Many incantations have been quoted here too. Dasha, *kalpa* and *Vyavahāra* are said to have been quoted from the early canon *'Pratyākhyāna*. Bhadra-Bāhu rescued *Dṛṣṭiwād* from a *Prābhṛta* named *Asamādhisthāna*. In the eighth early canon *'Karma Pravād'*, there is an explanation of the eight great causes. There is also a story of Sātvahana, the king of Pratishathan and Ācārya Kālaka. There is also a story of Vahana, the king of Pratishathan. And Ācārya Kālaka. There is a mention of Siddha Sen. Goshāla has been said to be Bhariya Goshāl. (One who neglects his teacher and does not obey him). There is an account of many ascetics who subsist on the grains on rice that may be held between a thumb and the first finger.

3.7 Vṛhatakalpa Cūrại

This commentary has been written on Moola Sutra and on the Laghu Bhāṣya written on it. The beginning part of this commentary is very much like the Daśāśruta Skanda Cūrni. Perhaps Daśāśruta Skanda

Cūrņi was written earlier than Vṛhatakalpa Cūrṇi and both are the creatinos of one and the same author. In this commentary, there is an account of 'Tattvārthādhigama', 'Višeṣāvaśyaka Bhāṣya', 'Karma Prākṛiti', Mahākalpa' and 'Govind Niryukti'.

3.8 Jeet Kalpa-Vṛhat Cũrại

This commentary has been written on Moola *Sutra*. Written by Sidhasen, it in is *Prākṛit*, *Sariskṛta* has not been used. The commentator has, in the beginning and at the end, paid his respect to JinbhadraGaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa, the author of *Jeetkalpa Sutra*.

3.9 Uttarā dhayana Cūrņi

The author of this commentary is Jindās Gaṇī Mahattar. He has named Gopāl Gaṇī Mahattara, who belonged to a business family, was of the group of Kotaka and belonged to the Vajra branch, as his teacher of religion, and Pradyumna Kṣamāśramaṇaa as his teacher of learning (according to Niścetha Viścṣa Cūrṇi). This commentary too has been written following the Niryughi. The commentator has made a mention of his book 'Dashvaikālika Cūrṇi'. There is a mention at many places of the text of Nāgārjuna. Strange derivations have been given of many words: Kawas (Kaśyapa lineage), derived from Kasham. Just observe the derivations of the words 'mata', 'Pita' etc.

3.10 Āvašyaka Cūrņi

Jindas Gaṇī Mahattara is supposed to be the author of this commentary. This is not a commentary on the direct Sutras expounded in Āvaśyaka Sutra, but has been written, like Viśeṣāvaśyaka, taking the Niryukti of Āvaśyaka as the basis. Here and there a sermon on the stories of Viśeṣāvaśyaka Bhāṣya is to be seen. There is not a presentation of the word meaning only, like the commensary on Sutra Kṛtāṇgaa, but considering its language and subject, it seems to be an independent work like Viśeɛtha Cūṛṇi. There is a detailed description of the incidents right from the birth ceremony of Rishabha Dev to his salvation. According to Jain ideology, it was he, who first of all taught how to make fire and also taught different crafts (potter, painter, weaver, worker and Kaśyapa these five are said to be the main craftsmen). He taught his daughter Brahmi how to write with her right hand and Sundari how to solve the sums of maths, Bharat to paint and also introduced the system of giving punishment to the wrong-doers. 'Artha Śāṣhtra' by Kautilya was also written in this period. After the emancipation of Rishabha, stupas (Lrwi) were built on Mount Aṣṭāpad (Kelash). Victory over the world by Bharat and his coronation have been dealt with in detail. He wrote the Arya Vedas in which there was the eulogy of the Teerthankaras, the duties of semi-ascetics and house-holders and the sermon on peace karmās. (The Vedas written by Sulsa and Yagyavalkya have been described here as 'Non-Aryan Vedas'). Origin of the Brahmins has been told.

There is a detailed sindy like that of Rishabha Dev, of the birth, marriage, initiation and the hardships of Mahaveera and of his journeys to different countries after initiation, which is generally not available elsewhere. During his journeys he came across many spiritual progenies of Lord Parshva. These progenies were great scholars of Ashtangamahanimita. Such a progeny named MuniCaridra was a house holder and also possessed things. He lived at the shop of a potter. Senior monk Naridīshen was another follower of Pārśvanāth. A mention of his female disciples is also found here. Goshaal, the son of Mankhali, who earned his living by displaying paintings, met Lord Mahaveera at Nalanda. After that they began to travel together. They suffered great hardships in Vajjabhumi and Subbhabhumi situated in Ladha Desh. There is a mention of Vasudev-Ayatan, Baldev Pratima, Skanda Pratima, Malli-Pratima and Dhondha Siva.

3.11 Daśavaikālika Cūrņi(Written by JindasGaņī-Mahattara)

JindasGaṇī Mahattar is supposed to be the author of this commentary. This too has been written following the *Niryughi*. In this commentary there is an acount of *Āvaśyaka Cūrṇi* and this shows that this

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commentary was written after the composition of $\bar{A}va\acute{s}yaka$ $C\bar{u}rni$. Here too, strange derivations of words have been given. For example, just observe the derivation of words like 'Drum'

3.12 Daśavaikālika Cūrņi(Written by Agastya Singh)

Like the commentary written by JindasGaṇī Mahattar, this commentary too has been written follwoing the *Niryukti*. At the end of the commentary, the writer has given his name as Kalashbhava Mrigendra i.e. Agastya Singh. He was a disciple of Rishigupta Kṣamāśramaṇa, who was an Acharya belonging to the branch of Kotiganeeya Vajraswami. Junior monk Agastya Singh is said to have lived in the third century Vikram. The important thing is that this commentary had been written nearly 200-300 years before the Vallabhi Assembly. Sometimes, difference is found in the original Moola *Sutras* of the commentaries written by Agastya Singha, JindasGaṇī Mahattara and Haribhadra. This difference is found in the stories of the *Niryughi*. There are many stories that are there in the commentary written by Haribhadra, but the other two commentators have not quoted them. In the present edition an index of the *Sutra* stories, 270 *Niryughi*-stories and quotations from the commentary have been given. In the introduction, a list of the *Niryughi* stories accepted by Agastya Singh and Haribhadra has been given. This commentary is very significant, considering the many versions, difference in the text and in the meaning and the mention of the *Sutra* texts. Muni Punyavijayii is of the view that there must be another ancient commentary on *Daśavaikālika Sutra*, apart from these two commentaries, the mention of which has been done by neither of the two commentators.

3.13 Naádī Cūrņi

This commentary has been written following the Moola *Sutra*. In this commentary there is an account of the Mathuri assembly. There had been a terrible famine that lasted for 12 years and no food was available and so the Jain monks had left Mathura and gone somewhere eite. When things changed for the better, the whole community of monks, under the leadership of Acharya Skandil gathered at Mathura and whatever matter the monks remembered was collected in the form of timely studies vocable. Some people are of the view that the vocable was not destroyed at the time of famine, the main expository Acharyas had died and so Acharya Skandil came to Mathura and imparted the knowledge of exposition to the monks. Here, regarding omniscience and absolute conation, the sumtotal of the two, the successiveness of their occurrence and their Abhithatva all three were discussed.

3.14 Anuyogadwāra Cūrņi

This short commentary too has been written following the Moola *Sutra*. In this commentary, the meanings of the words like sword, pertaining to family, worship, noble man, general, merchant, tank, pond, table, rest, garden, forest, assembly, chariot, vehicle, palanquin, etc. have been explained. Three verses related to music are in *Prākṛta* and this shows that there must have been some book on music too in *Prākṛti*. The seven notes and nine tastes have been expounded with examples.

There is another small commentary written on 1/24 of cubit part of *Anuyogadwāra*, the author of which is the well-known commentator JinbhadraGaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa. This commentary has been quoted word-by-word in *Anuyogadwāra Cūrṇi* written by JindasGaṇī Mahattar. *Daśavaikālika*

4. Tīkā Uiterature

As has already been told, JinbhadraGaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa occupies a very significant place among the Sańskṛta commentators of Agam literature. Among other commentaries the commentary of Haribhadra Suri and Malay Giri on Āvaśyaka Niryughi of Vadivetal Śāntisuri and Nemicandra Suri (known as Devendra Gaṇī before he became the Acharya) on Uttarādhyayan and of Haribhadra on Daśavaikālika Sutra are particularly remakrable. Haribhadrasuri was a great scholar, well-versed in vocable knowledge and he is ranked among the foremost ancient commentators of Agam. Many books written by him on different subjects have been

published. He has written commentaries on Āvaśyaka, Daśavaikālika, Jīvābhigama Pragyāpanā, Naridī, Anuyogadwāra and Piṇḍa Niryughi (incomplete). He has written two commentaries on Āvaśyaka Sutra. The commentary that is available is short from the point of view of evidence in comparison to the one that is not available. This commentary has been written, taking Niryughi as the basis. However, stories from the Bhāṣyās too have been used here and there. At places, the versions of Niryughi have also been given. Its plots are presented in Prākṛta itself. Written specially for the readers who are interested in brief expoundation of the subject, this commentary has been said to be of great help to and importance for the disciples.

Malaygiri Kalikalsarvagya was a contemporary of Acharya Hemacandra. He has written significant commentaries on Jain Agamas Vyākhyā Pragyapti Dwiteeyashataka, Rajprashneeya, Jīvābhigama, Pragyapana, Candra-Pragyapti, Surya Pragyapti, Nandī, Vyavahāra, Vṛhat Kalpa Peethika, (incomplete), Āvaśyaka, Piṇḍa Niryughi and Jyotiṣkaranḍaka to rame some of them. The commentaries written by him on Jambudweep Pragyapti, Ogha Niryughi, and Viśeṣāvaśyaka are not available. Āvaśyaka Vivaran written by īvīalayagiri is incomplete. It has been written on Āvaśyaka-Niryughi. Here and here stories from Viśeṣāvaśyaka Bhāṣya have been quoted.

Some worldly short stories from Āvasyaka Tīkā are being given here-

Once a monkey lived on a tree. It was the rainy season and he was shivering with cold. Seeing him shivering a bird (the weaver bird) who had a beautiful nest, said to himó

O Monkey! you are a male and yet your arms are of no use. Why don't you build a hut or a screen made of bamboo on the tree?

Hearing this the monkey remained quiet. The weaver bird repeated the same thing twice or thrice. Upon this the monkey got very angry and climbed on the tree where the bird lyied. The bird flew away from there are the monkey tore away the straws of her nest and scattered them in the air. Then he saidó

You are neither elder to me nor do I like you. O the bird having a beautiful house! Now live without a house, you are very much worried about others.

In the subcommentary of *Daśavaikālika* too Haribhadra has given many interesting folk stories and examples.

Šāntisuri was famous as 'Kavindra' and 'Vadichakravarti'. Being pleased with his gift of debate, Bhoja, the king of Malwa had conferred on him the title of 'Vadivetala'. As there is a prominence of *Prākṛta* plots and *Prākṛta* quotations in his commentary written on *Uttarādhyayan*, it (the commentary) is known as a commentary in *Prākṛta*. It has been said to be of great help to the pupil and also *Uttarādhyayan Vṛhatvritti*. In this commentary there is an explanation both of Moola *Sutra* and *Niryughi*. While quoting the *Prākṛta* plots, he has hinted at places at the old traditions by using the words 'Vridha'), 'Vridhavād' and 'Athe Bhananti'. In between, stories from *Bnāṣyās* also have been quoted. There is a mention of many books and many writers in this commentary. Wentioning the name of the book 'Stree *nirwāna Sutra*', opinion regarding emancipation of women has also been quoted. Šāntisuri was a contemporary of the great poet Dhanpal and he also revised 'Tilak Manjan', a book written by Dhanpāl. Nemicandrasuri wrote 'Sukha bodha *Tīkā*' on '*Uttarādhyayan Sutra*' on the basis of '*Paiya* (*Prākṛt*i) *Tīkā*' written by Vadivetal Śāntisuri. In his commentary, he too has quoted many stories in *Prākṛt*i. Bulogizing the commentary, he has declared him self as the disciple of Upadhyaya Amaradev, who, in his turn, was the disciple of Vrihadgacheeya Udyotanacharya. He completed this work of his in 1072 A.D. in Anahil Patan Nagar (Patan). Nemicandra Suri was a contemporary of Vadivetal Śāntisuri.

There are commentaries, full of learning, of Šeelankacharya on Acharang and Sutra Kṛtāṇga, Abhayadev is famous as the subcommentator of nine parts. He has written short commentaries on Sthānānga

, Samvāyānga, Vyakhāpragyapti, Gyātridharmakathā, Upāsakadasā, Anuttaropapatika, Praśna Vyākaran, Vipāka and Aupapāṭīkā Sutra. In the subcommentary on Sthānānga Sutra, the commentator has given a beautiful account of the nature of the women of different countries. He has admired the courage of the girls of Coulukya and the beauty of the women of Lat region and condemned the women of northern region -

There is a story in detail of two real brothers named Bhadrabahu and Varah Mihira in the subcommentary on Gachachar written by Vijay-VimalGaṇī. It is said that Varah Mihira had a great knowledge of *Candra*-Pragyapti and *Surya Pragyapti* and was well-versed in *Angopānga and Dravyānuyoga*. The commentator says that on the basis of *Surya Pragyapti* and *Candra* Pragyapti he had written a book on astrology titled *Varahi-Samhita*.

Thus, when we study the vast literature written in the form of Agamās and their commentaries, we come to know many things. The first thing is that the Jain scholars preserved the ancient folk-tales. Many of these tales are found in the Jātakās, Kathā Sarit-Sāgar. pafica Tantra, Hitopadesh and Shuka Saptati and have reached distant countries in the form of Aesop's tales, Arabian Nights and the stories of Kalela-Damna. Jain monks have made ample use of these stories as examples. The second type of stories are mythological legends which have been taken from the Brahmin books like Mahābhārata and Rāmāyan and have been transformed into the Jain mould. The stories of Ram, Krishna, Draupadi, Saint Dwaipayana, the burning of Dwarika and the origination of Ganga have been merged into Jain form. The stories of self-enlightened ones like Karkund etc. are like the Jataka tales. The story of saint Dwaipāyan appears in Kanhadeepayan Jataka, of Valkal-Cheri in Udan-Atthakatha of the Boddhas and of Kuna in Divyayadan. Many stories have been told in Vinayvastu written by Sarvastivad. The stories of Rohak and Kanak Manjari are very interesting and show a great imagination and they can be compared respectively to Mahosadha Pundit of the Boddha Jatakas and the prince of the Arabian Nights. In the same way, the stories of Shairtal, Candragupta, Cāṇakya, Mool Dev, the founder of the scripture of stealing, Mandit, the thief, Devdutta, the Mandit, the prostitute and Agadadutta etc. are particularly remarkable. In the words of Dr. Winternitch, There are many bright and precious jewels of the ancient Indian fiction in the Jain literature of commentary that cannot be found elsewhere.

OUESTIONS

Essay Type Questions:

1. Why is Agam Literature said to be consisting of five parts?

or

Throw light in trief on the gradual development of the literature pertaining to the commentary of the Agamās.

Short Answer Type Questions:

- 1. On which Agamās have Niryukties been written?
- Oive a brief account of any one of the Niryukties.
- What is Cūrni (commentary)? Name the main commentaries.

Objective Type Questions:

- 1. Agam with is known as 'pañcangi' (consisting of five parts).
- 2. The language of Niryukties is

3.	The language of $Curnis$ a mixture of and
4.	Commentaries have been written in
5.	The on <i>Daśavaikāliya</i> , written by JindasGaṇī Mahattar and Agastya Singh is available
6.	The author of Uttarādhyayan Cūrņi is
7.	is famous as the sub-commentator writing on the nine parts of literature.
8.	The pen name (miuke) of Nemicandra suri, the commentator of 'U Uttarādhyayan' is
9.	The commentary titled 'Śiṣyahita' on 'Āvaśyaka Sutra' was written by
10.	The language of the Niryukti in Ardha-Magadhi Jain Agamas has been said to be

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LESSON-15

PHILOSOPHICAL LITERATURE

Philosophical Literature of Jainism

In this chapter, the contribution made by the $\bar{A}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}s$ of the Digambara and $\bar{S}vetambara$ sects, to philosophical literature is described in a chronological order. A description of their books as well as their personal characterisic would be briefly given in comprehensive language.

1. Ācārya Kuòdakuòda

The history of the Jain philosophical literature starts from the first century A.D. In this century, one of the great Ācāryās, named Kundakundācārya was born. His time is somewhere about the third century of Vikram Samvat. His real name was Padmanandī. But, as his birth-place was Kaur dakundapur, he became famousas Ācārya Kundakunda. He was the head of the Mula-Sangha which is another name of the Digambara sect. The works of Ācārya Kundakunda are deemed to be as authentic as the agamas - canonical texts, in the Digambara sect. He was the author of many monumental works like Pravacanasāra, Pancāstikāya, Samayasāra, Niyamsāra, AstaPāhuḍa and many other books. The first three works mentioned here are very important. Just as in the Vedanta philosophy, Upaniṣadas, Bhagavadagtā and BrahmaSūtra are commonly known as Prasthāntrayi (the fundamental triplet), in the same way in Jaina philosophy, Pravacanasāra, Pancāstikāya and Samayasāra are commonly known as Nājaka - Trayī. (The triplet of Spiritual Drama).

In *Pravacanasāra*, there are three main topics viz. knowledge, faith (belief), and conduct. In the discussion on the topic of knowledge, first of all it is said that knowledge and happiness are gained by a pure soul without sensory organs. In fact, both knowledge and happiness are the nautre of the soul. Happiness does not depend upon either body or the sensory organs. Sensory pleasures are not, in reality, happiness, but are actually unhappiness. Happiness and knowledge are not different at all. Sensory pleasure is the result of the sensory knowledge. And extra-sensory pleasure is the result of extra-sesory knowledge. Sensory knowledge is *Heya* (i.e., fit to be abandoned) and extra-sensory knowledge is *Upādeya* (i.e., fit to be accepted). Sensory knowledge can only know the present object which has come into the range of sense-organs, but it cannot know the past and future. But extra-sensory knowledge is capable of knowing all. It is the result of elimination of *karma*, it is permanent and all-pervading. Therefore, it knows simultaneously all different substances (*dravyās*) of all time and all-space of the universe.

Discussing about the identity-cum-difference of soul and knowledge, Kundakunda writes that knowledge is soul because it does not exit without soul. Therefore, knowledge is nothing but the nature of soul, but the soul is in the form of knowledge as well as other qualities for the soul is a treasure of infinite number of qualities. Now, because soul and knowledge are identical, soul is equivalent to knowledge. The more the quantum of knowledge, the more the size of the soul and knowledge is equivalent to object of knowledge, the object of knowledge is the whole extent of cosmos as well as supra-cosmos. Thus, knowledge is ubiquitous, and with it the soul is also ubiquitous. If soul is not considered as of the same size as knowledge, then it is either smaller or bigger than knowledge. If soul is smaller than knowledge, the knowledge outside the soul would become devoid of consciousness, then soul will not be able to know the knowledge which is outside it, then how will it know? If soul is greater than knowledge, without knowledge how it can know anything? In this way, by proving that knowledge is equivalent to the size of soul and soul is equivalent to the extension of knowledge, Ācārya Kundakunda has firmly proved that soul is omniscient. He asserted that one

who does not know everything, does not know even one thing, and one who does not know even one thing, does not know everything. Having discussed so magnificently about knowledge, Ācārya Kundakunda further classified knowledge into two kinds: (1) *Pratyakṣa* (Direct) and (2) *Parokṣa* (Indirect). *Pratyakṣa* is that which is obtained by the soul (*akṣa*) itself without the help of the external means. *Parokṣa* means the knowledge obtained with help of external organs. *Pratyakṣa* knowledge is free from the successive knowledge like sensation (*avagraha*) and speculation (*ihā*).

Like the topic of knowledge, that of the objects of knowledge is also fully discussed. It beautifully deals with reality, substance, quality and mode. That which has origin, cessation and continuity and is also possessed of qualities and modes is called substance (*dravya*). The substance is proved on the basis of its nature. Though it is a kind of transformation in the form of origination, cessation and persistence, by nature it is real and imperishable. All the three features, viz. origination, cessation and persistence are concomitant. Without origination there is no cessation and without cessation there is no origination, and without persistence there is neither origination nor cessation. But these three subsist in modes (*paryāya*) and *paryāya* itself subsists in *dravya*. That means all are the forms of *dravya*. In the same way *dravya* itself undergoes change from one quality to another one. Therefore, qualities and modes both are the forms of *dravya*. *Dravya* is in form of reality. All the three viz. *dravya*, quality and made are *sat* (reality). Thus, all the three are expansion of reality or existence.

In this way, Ācārya Kuṅdakuṅda has described the identity-cum-difference of reality, substance, qualities and modes logically and in a very beautiful manner. Having done so, he has mentioned only four bhangas (predications) viz., existence, non-existence, inexpressible and both (existence and non-existance), out of the sevenfold predications of (Sapta-bhangi), which is one of the unique contributions of Jaina philosophy. Further, he has described also the different types of substances viz. Jīva (soul), Pudgala (matter), Dharma (medium of motion), Adharma (medium of rest) Ākaṣa (space) and Kāla (time) after which he reflects on the relation between Jīva and Karma and the topic of the doer-ship of soul.

He has written that soul is neither *pudgala* (matter) nor it has created the mass out of *pudgala*. So the soul is neither in the form of body nor the creator of body. But, on account of the qualities of snigdhatva (glueyness) and *rukṣaṭva* (dryness), *parmānus* (the ultimate atoms) themselves get combined into the form of mass. Therefore soul is not a creator of *karma* which is nothing else than mass or aggregate of *pudgala*. Soul is only the doer of self-emotions like raga and dvesha (attachment and aversion). On account of the stimulation by these emotions, the aggregates of *pudgala* belonging to the group of *karma* get transformed in the form of *karma* and get bound with the soul. This is known as *bandha* (bondage of the karmic matter with the soul).

Thus, after discussing how the bondage occurs, Ācārya Kundakunda also has presented the solution to liberate the soul from the Fandha (bondage). He writes - "The person who knows really the pure form of the soul and who meditares on it, cuts down the knot of the delusion (moha). On cutting down the knot of delusion, when the soul also becomes free from raga and dvesha, it maintains equilibrium in happiness and sadness, and ultimately attains eternal bliss (akṣaya-sukha). Only the attainment of the eternal bliss is the culmination of the discussion on knowledge and the knowables. Only the eternal bliss is worthy of attainment. To gain this, one wants to become a Śramaṇa (ascetic) and becoming a Śramaṇa, he undertakes the spiritual Sādhanā. The discussion on this Sādhanā of śramaṇa is the topic of the third chapter on conduct.

Another work by Ācārya Kundakunda is *Pancāstikāya*. It also has only three chapters. The first chapter consists of the discussion on the topic of the five *Astikāyās* (real existences). Although its contentmatter is mostly akin to the topic of knowables discussed in the *Pravacanasāra*, it has some specialities of its own. The second chapter (*adhikāra*) deals with the nine fundamental principles (*Tattva* or *padārth*I) viz., *Jīva* (soul), *ajīva* (non-soul), *puŋya* (merit), *pāpa* (de-merit or sin), *aśrva* (cause of the influx of *karma*), *Samvara*

(stoppage of the influx of *karma*), *nirjarā* (shedding off of *karma*), *baṅdha* (bondage) and *mokṣa* (liberation). The third chapter includes the discussion on the path of liberation (i.e. *Mokṣa-mārga*).

The third text is <code>Samayasāra</code> which is none less than a great ocean of spirituality. <code>Samaya</code> is also synonym of soul (<code>atmā</code>). The <code>Samayasāra</code> means the essence of soul - that is it includes discussion of pure form of soul. The author in the very beginning of this valuable treatise classifies <code>Samaya</code> (<code>atmā</code>) into two types: (1) <code>Sva-Samaya</code> is the soul that always remains fixed in its own nature of knowledge, faith and conduct. (2) <code>Para-Samaya</code> is the soul which dwells in the alien-states arising as a result of rise of <code>karma</code>. Out of these two only, the former, i.e. the soul absorbed in its own pure qualities and modes, is the one that is salutary for soul and therefore, it should be accepted. The postulate which talks of such pure soul to be bound by <code>karma</code> would create discrepancy, and hence, it is not true. Only the pure soul is the truth. But most people do not know it, as they have neither heard of it nor experienced about it. They, however, are always involved only in the enjoyment of sensual pleasures. They believe it to be the only essence of life. In this way, this great author (Kundakuńda) has strived hard to make the reader perceive his pure soul, in his treatise.

In the Jain philosophy, there are two standpoints to comprehend the reality. One is niścaya-naya (i.e., transcendental standpoint) and second one is vyavahāra-naya, (i.e., empirical standpoint). The former one accepts only the genuine nature of the object, which is independent of other substances, while the vyavahāra naya (i.e. empirical standpoint) accepts those aspects of reality which are dependent on the other substances. For example, if there is an earthen pot full of ghee, and if we call it a pot of ghee, (instead an earthen pot) our statement is true from the vyavahāra standpoint, and if we call it a pot of slay, it is proper. Thing which is in proper form, it is the statement made from the niścaya naya. Thus what is actually true is the transcendental standpoint; hence, from the transcendental standpoint, the reality is always only in the identical form (abhedarūpa). But the reality which is in identical form (abhedarūpa) can not be expressed. If it is at all expressed, it does not remain in its identical form, but it appears in a different form, which is actually not real. But we cannot explain to others without expressing our view. For example, if we say only 'soul', others will not be able to understand what the soul is. But if we define soul as - that one which sees and knows is the soul, others will easily understand it. Finally, we can say that niścaya is abhedgrāhi (propounder of identity) and vyarahāra is bhedgrāhi (propounder of difference). So niścaya is actually real, while vyvahāra is not so. But without the help of vyavahāra naya, one can not predicate the niścaya for others. So we can't leave vyavahāra.

Keeping these two aspects in view, the author has elaborated the reality of soul. He states: "That standpoint is the pure (transcendental) one which comprehends the soul as unsmeared by *karma* and no-*karma* (i.e. body), just as the lotus by water, perceives it (the soul) in identical form even in the different births of human beings and infernal beings, etc., and experiences it (the soul) unsmeared by the varieties of attachement etc. and also free from divisions of knowledge, intuition etc. (verse no. 15), and one which comprehends it contrary to this is an empirical standpoint." Thus, it states that soul and body are identical, (of course in a relative sense). But according to *niścaya-naya*, they can never be identical. The author tells us that only by understanding the *rane Tattvās* such as *jīva*, *ajīva*, etc. from *niścaya naya*, one can get the *saṃyaktva* (right belief). Hence, the author has described the nine *Tattvās* both from the *niścaya - naya* and *vyavahāra-naya* and then established the reality of pure soul in this work. His purport is that it is only one *jīva Tattva* which takes the form of nine-*Tattvās*, yet it does not leave its oneness.

Above, we have mentioned that *Paricāstikāya*, *Pravacansāra* and *Samaya-sāra* are generally referred to as "nāṭaka-trayī", but in reality it is better to say that *Samayasāra* is only a nāṭaka (drama), because in it only the worldly existence is described in the form of a drama (nāṭaka), in which jīva and ajīva are the two main characters which play the roles of the other *Tattvās* such as āśrava etc. One of commentators, named Amritcandra Sūri has given it the form of drama. Therefore, he calls the first episode as pūrva-ranga (i.e., prelude or prologue of the drama) and when the description of one *Tattva* is over, he writes in the style of

drama as 'āśravo niṣkrāntaḥ.' It means the character. Āśrava has left the stage and when the second episode gets started he writes - "atha praviṣaṭi saṃvaraḥ" - it means the new actor Saṃvara is now entering into the stage. The elaborate discussion of knowledge and knowables as made by Ācārya Kuṅdakuṅda in these marvellous treatises can be considered to be his outstanding contribution to the development of the Jain philosophy.

2. Umāsvāti The Author of Aphorisms

After Kundakundācārya, the name of Ācārya Umāsvāti shines like a resplendent star in the sky of Jain Philosophy. The honour of systematizing the Jain Philosophy in aphorism's style in Sanskrit language like the Vedic treatises in the same style goes to Umāsvāti. He, in fact, was the first acharya to undertake the task in this field. This monumental text came to be known as "Tattvārtha Sūtra" (That Which Is). Its main topic is "mokṣa" (liberation). Therefore, the text is also known as "Mokṣa-Śāstra" (i.e. scripture on liberation). It begins with the aphorism on mokṣa-mārga (the path leading to liberation). The Sūtrakāra (aphorisms' author) has defined the mokṣa-mārga in the same way as defined by Kundakunda as - "the path leading to liberation consists of right faith, right knowledge and right conduct." He asserted that samyaka darśana (right faith) can be attained by believing in the seven Tattvās which are described in his text. Ācārya Kundakunda had propounded nine Tattvās, but Umāsvāti, by combining pāpa and puṇya Tattvās into the bardha Tattva reduced the number of the fundamental principles to seven. His treatise consists of ten chapters. In the first chapter, for indicating the means of knowing the seven Tattvās, he classifies it into two parts - (1) Indirect (2) Direct. He also shows that knowledge is the same as the pramāṇa (i.e. valid knowledge) he classifies it into two parts - (1) Indirect (2) Direct.

In the Jaina philosophical works, there are indicated two types of classification to understand the topic of knowledge (1) Canonical (2) Philosophical. In the canonical classification, knowledge is of five kinds - (1) Mati, Śruta, Avadhi, Manah-paryava and Kevala. Through this five kinds, a comprehensive exposition of knowledge is presented. In the philosophical classification, the above five kinds of knowledge are compressed into two divisions, viz., pratyaksa (direct) and paroksa (indirect). Ācārya Kundakunda, however, has only elucidated the nature of paroksa and pratyaksa knowledge, but not about their classifications etc.

But the author of the *Tattvārtha Sūtra* has shown that all the five kinds of knowledge are *pramāṇa* (valid knowledge), and has classified the *pramāṇa* into *parokṣa* and *pratyakṣa*. By doing so, he has not only reconciled both the sects (viz., Śvetāmbara and Digambara), but also guided the future Jain logicians by including the *pramāṇa*s of the philosophical world such as *smṛti* (memory) etc. in the *parokṣa* (indirect) *pramāṇa*. The Jain logicians belonging to both the Śvetāmbara and the Digambara traditions, who flourished in this field after Umāsvāti (the Sūtrakāra), continued to follow the path directed by him.

In the second chapter of the $Tattv\bar{a}rtha$ $S\bar{u}tra$, there is description about the $J\bar{t}va$ Tattva (the soul). First it discusses about states $(bh\bar{a}va)$ of soul and then dwells upon its characeristics. Then by classification of souls into two types, viz. belonging to mundane existence $(sa\dot{m}s\bar{a}r\bar{t})$ and the liberated souls, it describes about the former. It has made clear as to how, after death, the soul $(J\bar{t}va)$ transmigrates from one place to another and then how does it take rebirth at that place, how creation of the body takes place, and which souls undergo a pre-mature death?

The third chapter includes the details about the adholoka (the lower universe), and then elucidates the seven hells (*narakas*). Then it describes about the madhyaloka (the middle universe). In the fourth chapter, the author describes about celestial abodes (*swargas*) and *Devas* (celestial beings) living there.

In the fifth chapter, there is description about the *ajīva-Tattva* (the non-soul) which is almost similar to the discussion on the topic of the knowledges in *Pravacanasāra*.

In this chapter, the origination, cessation and persistance or the qualities and modes are mantioned as the characteristics of *Dravya* (substance) in the same way as in *Samayasāra*. *Dravya* is classified into six types - *Jīva* (soul), *Pudgala* (matter), *Dharma* (medium of motion), *Adharma* (medium of rest), *Ākāśa* (space) and kala (time). *Pudgala* is further classified into atom (*parmāņu*) and aggregate (*Skarda*). This atom is formed by the fission of the aggregate, while the *Skarda* is formed due to fission, fusion and fission - cum fusion. While describing the formation of *Skarda*, the description of how the combination of one atom with the other takes place is also given, which is in the same way as given in the '*Pravacansāra*'.

In the sixth chapter, there is a description about the āśrava - Tattva (the cause of the karmic influx). It gives information as to which act becomes the cause of inflow of which karma into the soul. In the seventh chapter, the causes of the meritorious karma (punyāśrava) are given. Also the five vratās - Ahimsā (nonviolence), Saṭya (truth), Acaurya (non-stealing), Brahmacarya (contenence), Aparigraha (non-possessiveness) are described. This chapter is related with Śrāvakā's (a layman) conduct. In the eighth chapter, the causes of the bondage of karma are mentioned and the nature and classification of bondage is given in detail. While dealing with the bardha - Tattva, there is also exposition of the Jain theory of karma.

The ninth chapter describes the Samvara (cause of stoppage of karmic influx and Nirjarā (dissociation from karmic bondage). In a way, it is almost related to asceticism. It contains an eleborate description about Gupti (control) Samiti (deportment) Dharma (righteousness) Anuprekṣā (contemplation), Pariṣaha-jaya (conquest over the hardships that occur in Sādhanā, asceticism and knowledge.) In the tenth chapter, after describing the nature of liberation (mokṣa) of soul from the karma, there is the exposition of the liberated soul. In this way, this treatise, in the style of aphorism, depicts the enire Jain view on the fundamental principles in a philosophical style. All the Jaina sects approve its validity and given due respect to it. The Tattvārtha Sūtra has earned the same status in Jainism as the Jaimini-Sūtra in the Mimāmsā-darśana, the Brahma-Sūtra in the Vedānta-darśana, the Yoga-Sūtra in the Yogadarśana and the Nyāya-Sūtra in the Nyāya-darśana and the Vaiśeṣika-Sūtra in the Vaiśeṣika-darśana.

There is a controversy about the authorship of the *Tattvārtha Sūtra*. Two readings of the *Tattvārtha Sūtra* are available. One is prevalent in the *Digambara* tradition and the other in the *Śvetāmbara* tradition. There is a *bhāṣya* (an elaborate commentary) available with the reading accepted by the *Śvetāmbarās*, who believe that it is an auto-*bhāṣya*. In the end of the *bhāṣya*, the author has given the eulogy, and therein he has mentioned his own name as Umāṣvāti. The *Digambaras* also accept *Umā*Ṣwāmī or Umāṣvāti as the author of the *Tattvārtha Sūtra* and in the stone-writings of the eleventh - twelth century, the same is coroborated. But in the ninth century; two well-known *ōcāryas*, Veernandī and Vidyānanda, wrote that the *Tattvārtha Sūtra* was written by Gridhapicchācārya. This name may be a nickname of Umāṣvāti, but not his real name. There is however, a dearth of evidence to prove this fact.

From Akalańka's commentary, *Tattvārtha Rājvārtika* it is gathered that there was also another reading of the original text before him and that it was probably the one accepted in the *Śvetambar* tradition. The ever first commentary written on the reading accepted by the *Digambaras* was the *Sarvārthasiddhi* written by Pujyapāda, which was a work of the 5th century, while that on the *Śvetāmbarās*' reading with *bhāṣya*, was the one by Siadhasena Gaṇī, written in the 8th - 9th century.

3. Ācārva Samantabhadra

Among the Jaina Philosopher Ācāryās, the name of Ācārya Samantabhadra is at very high level. Almostall eminent Jain ācāryas who were his antecedents have praised his work with honour in their respective treatises. In the very beginning of the Mahāpurāṇa, written by the great scholar Ācārya Jinasena in the ninth century, it is mentioned that at that time all vādis (experts in polemics), Vāgmis (debaters), Poets and Gamakas (knoledgeable ones) who were present there, accepted the authority of Samantabhadra. He was himself a

highly invincible $v\bar{a}di$. He travelled all over India and defeated the great $v\bar{a}di$ s of his time. So, Ācārya Jinasena wrote that by weapon of his speech, Samantabhadra broke the rock of the antagonisms into smithareens. In *Hanumaccaritra*, it has been written that the people who were pervert $v\bar{a}di$ s were taught a lesson by Samantabhadra in an unparallel way. Śvetāmbara Ācārya HaribhadraSūri honoured him as a $v\bar{a}di$ -mukhya (i.e. the chief among the $v\bar{a}di$ s).

He was a powerful logician along with being an eminent author. During his ascetic life, once he was suffering from a disease of gluttony. To cure it, he stayed at the temple of Šiva of king Šivakoti at $V\bar{a}r\bar{a}nas\bar{t}$ in disguise. Whatever offerings were dedicated to the diety was consumed by him. He could digest everything because of his disease. When he was cured, the offerings started to remain unconsumed, and ultimately the truth was revealed. Then the king forced him to worship the Śiva-linga. At that time, he composed a philosophical stotra (eulogy of Jina) named as 'Brihat Svayambhu Stotra' and demonstrated a miracle. The king was thus influenced by him. Samantabhadra told the king that he was protagonist of Jaina doctrines, and that whoever wanted to enter into polemics with him was welcome; of course, none turned up. By this incident, he came to be also known as the first eulogy-composer.

He also wrote many works like Yuktyānuśāsanam, Āpta-mimāmsā, Jinastuti Jajaka, Ratnakaranda Śrāvakācāra along with the above stotra. Jīva-siddhi was also written by him, but it is not available. His work Yuktyanuśāsanas was very famous. In it, through 64 verses of eulogy, he glorified the doctrine of Jainas and also criticized other beliefs. He has expounded every topic on the basis of strong reasoning. In the Brahat Svayambhu Stotra, there is the eulogy of twenty-four Tīrtharikarās, each. The principal aim of these stotra (eulogy) is to expound the religion of all the twenty-four Tīrtharikarās. The whole treatise is replete with the philosophical discussions and religious teachings. The most important and the foremost work of Samantabhadra is Āpta-mimāmsā. Dealing with the nature of thr Āpta (the most mustworthy), it is maintained that the Āpta i.e. a person of unimpeachable authority is one who is omniscient and entirely free from all blemishes or flaws. In order to prove that the articulations of the apta are non-contradictory to logic or reasoning and consistent with the agama (canons), the author, after testing the doctrines of absolutism - ekantavada (based on one - sidedness) on the touchstone of the doctrine of relativity (syadvada), has established the doctrine of non-absolutism (based on many - sidedness).

After discussing about different ekantvādi, Ācārya Samantabhadra accepted *Tattva* (reality) as *bhāva-abhāVātmā*ka, (consisting of both the existent and non-existent), dvaita-advaitatmāka (consisting of both unity and duality), nitya-anityatmāka (consisting of both permanenca and transience). The honour of successfully applying the doctrine of syādvāda or anekāntavāda in the field of philosophy goes only to Ācārya Samantabhadra. Therefore, he is also known as "Syādvada-tīrthankara" or even called the father of Syādvāda. His time was about fourth or fifth century A.D.

4. Ācārya Siddhasena

Ācārya Siddhasena has earned a very high place in the field of Jaina phitosophical literature. He is famous as Siddhasena Divākara in the *Śvetāribara* tradition. But he is generally referred to as only Siddhasena in the *Digaribara* tradition. The event which occured in the life of Swāmī Samantabhadra in the *Digaribara* tradition has a striking resemblance with the one that happened in that of Siddhasena Divākara. The episode goes like this: When King Vikramāditya told him to pay obeisance to the Šiva-*lirīga*, Siddhasena told that this diety will not be able to bear his salutation. But the king forced him to do so. At that time he did stuti (eulogy) of his own beloved diety (Jina).

Siddhasena is one of the ancient logicians and also an author of treatises on logic which include 'Dwātrimśad - dwātrimśikā', 'Sanmati Tarka Prakaraṇa', 'Nyāyāvātāra' and 'Kalyānamandira' Stotra.

In the Sanmati Tarka, the author excellently elucidates the doctrine of naya (stand-points). There are as many number of standpoints as there are ways of articulation, there are as many heretical doctrines (i.e. non-Jain philosophies) as there are the number of standpoints. Among them, Kapila's Sānkhya philosophy comes under the dravyārthika naya (Substantial stand-point), the Buddha's philosophy under pure paryāya-naya (modal standpoint) and Kanada's philosophy under both the nayās, but they are all perverted because in all of them both standpoints are not relative (i.e. they are one-sided).

In the second chapter of the Sannati Tarka, both the doctrines of successive and simultaneous occurences of the Jñānopayoga (occupation of consciousness in cognition) and darśanopayoga (occuption of consciousness in intution) are shown to have the flaw, and in their place the doctrine of identity of (kevala) jñānopayoga and (kevala) darśanopayoga is established as flawless. In the Digambara tradition, the intuition and cognition of an omniscient are believed to occur simultaneously, while in the Śvetāmbara tradition, they are believed to occur successively. But the author of 'Sannati Tarka' advocates that the difference (in temporal occurence) of intuition and cognition is found only in the souls which are non-omniscient; it does not remain in the omniscient soul, and that, in the case of the omniscient souls, darśana and jñāna become one and the same. Because of this identity, Ācārya Siddhasena Divākara is identity as the 'upholder of the doctrine of' (of Kevaljñāna and Kevaldarśana). This treatise (Sannati Tarka) is in Prākrit language.

In his work 'Nyāyāvatāra', Siddhasena expounds, the topic of pramāņa (valid knowledge). In this work, the author has added the term 'badha-vivarjita' (free from any hinderance) to the characeristic of pramāṇa (valid knowledge) as defined by the great logician, Ācārya Samantabhadra. Siddhasena further classifies it into pratyakṣa and parokṣa and gives their definitions. He also defines the anumāna-pramāṇa (valid knowledge of inference) and explains the nature of two types of anuman as prārtha (subjective) and parārtha (verbal); together with the latter, he also explains about pakṣa (probandum), hetu (enunciation of proban), driṣṭānta (example), duṣana (defect) and tadabhāṣa (illusion) in this 'reatise. In this way, elements useful in logic are included in thirty-two verses of this work which is in Sansirit.

Although in this treatise, neither its name nor its author's name is mentioned and even it is sans the word *nyāya* (logic), its commentator, Siddharṣi, informs us that it is '*Nyāyāvatāra*' and traditionally it is known to be 'Siddhasena's work. This is endotted by Pandit Sukhalalji. But when we thoroughly examine it, it becomes our firm conviction that this treatise must have been composed after Dharmakirti's time, for it contains an altogather independent verse which explains *anumāna*(inference) as unambiguous to prove that *pratyakṣa* is unambiguous. For example, he says "*nāpratyakṣamapi bhrāntam, pramāṇa tvaviniścayāt*."

The last word in the above verse is the same as 'Pramāṇa Viniścaya' used by Dharmakirti. Secondly, anyathānupapattiḥ (logical discontinuance) which is the characteristic of proban, is contribution of PātraSwāmī, the author of the work 'Triuckṣana Kadarthana'. This is also found in 'Nyāyāvatāra .' Therefore it appears to us that the view of Pandit Jugalkiśoreji Mukhtar that Sanmati Tarka was composed one century before this treatise (viz. Nyāyāvatāra) is correct, for there is a clear influence on it of not only the Jain ācāryās like Patraswami (Patra Kiesari) whose time is later than Samantabhadra, but also the Buddhist ācāryas, Dharmakirti and Dharmottara. Mukhtar has fixed the time of Siddhasena, the author of 'Sanmati Tarka', between 507 A.D. and 609 A.D. Panditji, however, believed that Siddhasena was a scholar of fifth century A.D.

5. Ācārva Pujyapāda

His original name is Devanandīhe became famous as Pujyapāda (literally, the adorable one). He was the educational teacher of king Durvinita of Ganga Dynasty, who ruled from 482 A.D. upto 522 A.D. Thus he belonged to 5th century A.D.. One of the followers of Pujyapāda was Vajranandī. He established *Draviḍa-Sangha* (order) in 470 A.D. as mentioned in *Darśanasāra* by Devasena.

Pujyapāda was one of the eight famous Indian grammarians. He composed 'Jainendra Grammar. The oldest commentary on 'Tattvārtha-Sūtra' known as 'Sarvartha-siddhi' was written by Pujyapāda. In this commentary, he has critically examined selected doctrines of the philosophies such as Sārkhya, Yoga, Buddhismetc. This discussion is related with the concept such as mokṣa (liberation), pramāṇa (valid knowledge) and dravya (substance). In the prologue of the commentary of the very first verse, Pujyapāda deals with the nature of mokṣa in the Sārkhya, Vaiśeṣika and Buddhist Philosophies and shows the fallacies therein while discussing the validity of knowledge. He has criticized Sārkhya's indriya-prāmānya-vāda (the doctrine of validity of sensory knowledge) and yoga sannikarṣa prāmānyavāda (the doctrine of validity of the sensory contact).

The other philosophies hold the knowledge through sensory perception is *pratyaksa* (direct valid knowledge), but the Jain $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ryas$ hold it as paroksa (indirect). Pujyapāda, raising objections in accepting knowledge through sensory organs as pratyaksa, endorses the view of the Jaina philosophy. He explains that like the lamp, the pramāṇa lightens itself as well as the other substances. In the fifth chapter, while enumerating the number of fundamental substances in the Jain philosophy, he incorporates the nine $dravy\bar{a}s$ of the Vaisesikadarsana into the six $dravy\bar{a}s$ asserted by the Jain metaphysics, and he propounds that all atoms belong to one and the same substance (viz., pudgala), from which the things like earth, fire, water and wind are made, that is, they are not independent $dravy\bar{a}s$.

Other works of Pujyapāda include <code>Samādhi-Ṣaṭaka</code>, <code>Iṣtopdeśa</code>, etc., which are spiriutual treatises. He has also written books in the field of medicine. That is why the author of the <code>Iĥānārnava</code> eulogizing Pujyapāda, mentions that Pujyapāda's compositions are destroyer of the dirt of body, mind and speech, for his medical treatise is a destroyer of the dirt of the body, <code>Samadhi-Ṣaṭaka</code> is a destroyer of the malignancies of mind and the Jainendra Grammar destroys the defects of speech.

6. Ācārya Mallavādi

Ācārya Mallavādi occupies a very high place among the authors of philosophical literature in the Śvetāmbara tradition of the Jains. One of his very important treatises is 'Dvādaśāra-nayacakra' which is available with a commentary on it by one, Sinha 'Jaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa. The Jain philosophy categorizes the exposition of the non-absolutistic reality or substance under the systems of pramāṇa (valid knowledge) and naya (standpoint). The treatise 'Nayacakra', as it is signified by its very title, is an exposition of the 'naya'. This text was written in Sanskrit language, but it is not available today. However, we get only the commentary on it.

Muni Jambūvijay jī, a scholarly monk of the Śvetāmbar tradition, has, after making a thorough study of 'Nayacakra' with the commentary, published an introductary article in the journal titled Anand Prakāśa (vol. 47, no. 7). From this, it is gathered that Mallavādi has not only made a free use of the work 'Vākyapradeepa' by Bhartrihari, but also mentions his name at some places. Bhartrihari is believed to flourish between 600 A.D. and 650 A.D. Hence, it is clear that the author of Nayacakra must have flourished after this; moreover, he has been referred to by Haribhadra in his commentary on Anekānta Jayapatākā. Muni Jinavijayajī has proved the time of Haribhadra as about 700-770 A.D.. But, because Haribhadra is found to have quoted in his work 'Śaylaaraśana-Samuccaya' a verse from Bhaṭṭa Jayanta's Nyāya-maĥjarī which is a work of about 800 A.D., Pt. Mahendra-Kumariji 'Nyāyācārya' has put the later limit of Haribhadra's period as 810 A.D.

On the other hand, Dr. Ṣaṭish Caṅdra Vidyābhuṣaṇa has mentioned that Mallavādi had made annotations, titled 'Dharmottara-tippanaka', on the 'Nyāyabindu' which is the commentary written by a Buddhist scholar named Dharmottara; hence, based on this information, Dr. P.L. Vaidya considers Mallavādi to have flourished later than Dharmottara. Moreover, the *Prabhāvaka-carita* mentions Mallavādi's period as 844, and Dr. Vaidya suggests that this should be *Vikram Samvata*, and believes that his correct period would be 827 A.D. Thus, it

would not be possible that the *Nayācakra* seen by Bhaṭṭa Akalaṅka in the later half of 7th century A.D. would be the same as Mallavādi's *Nayacakra*. (In the Jainendra *Siddhanta Kośa*, however, we get mention of two Mallavādi as the author of *Dvadasāra Nayacakra* - One of Vikram Samvat 414 (i.e. 357 A.D.) and another one, a logician *Śvetārhbara* Ācārya, whose work was before Ācārya *VidyāNandī*, and whose time is about the end of the 8th century A.D.)

7. Jinabhadra Gaņī Kşamā Śramaņa

Jinabhadra Gaṇī Kṣamā Śramaṇa was one of the renowned scholars among the Śvetāmbara ācaryās. His elaborate commentary, called 'Viśeṣāvaśyaka-bhāṣya', is one of his outstanding works. Only because of this work, he became famous as a "bhāṣyakāra". Although this work, Viśeṣāvaśyaka-bhāṣya, is full of discussions on the topic of canonical texts, its discussion on the topic of knowledge has an important place in the Jain philosophy. Jinabhadra Gaṇī Kṣamāśramaṇa in the Śvetāmbara tradition and Bhaṭṭa Akalai ka in the Digambara tradition - both these competent scholars have greatly enriched the exposition on knowledge in the Jain philosophy, and made its position sound in the field of Indian philosophy.

Kṣmā śramanajī, though a logician, was a staunch believer in the canonical texts. Thus, his reasoning was always in conformity with the *āgamās*. It is for this reason that he strongly criticized his predecessor Ācārya Siddhasena Divākara who was more a logician than a simple believer. As it was mentioned earlier, in his treatise Sanmati-tarka, Siddhasena had proved on the basis of his reasoning that omniscient knowledge and omniscient intuition were in fact identical, not at all different. But as this proposition is not in conformity with the agamas of the *Śvetāmbara* tradition, Gaṇīji has taken Siddhasena to task on the basis of agamic tradition. *Pātrakeśari*

There are many other treatises written by him, including Brihatsamgrahini, *Brihat-Kṣetra-Samāsa*, etc. His time is about the end of the 6th century A.D.

8. Pātrakeśarī

Pātrakeśari was one of the capable ācāryas of the Digambara sect. He was also known as Pātraswāmi. He was the author of a very important treatise titled 'Trilakṣana Kadarthana', which is however, not available. In the Buddhist philosophy, we come across threefold characteristics of hetu (the articulation of probans) which has been mentioned by the Buddhist Ācārya Vasubandhu, but it was Dignāga who had developed this concept. Hence, after him, it has been accepted as 'Dignāga Principle' as mentioned by Vācaspati Miśra. Now, to repudiate this threefold characteristics of hetu, Pātrakeśari had composed the above treatise. Thus, Pātrakeśari belongs to a period later than Dignāga whose time is 5th century A.D.. The following verse from his 'Trilakshana Kadarthana' is very popular.

"Anyathānupapannatvam yatra tatra trayena kim -Nānyathānupapannatvam yatra tatra trayena kim".

Śāntarakṣita, the Buddhist Ācārya, in a chapter called 'Anumāna-parīṣhā' of his treatise Tattva-Sangraha, has criticized the view of Patraswami, after quoting a few verses (kārikās) in the form of the prima facie argument of the opposite view. In those karikas, the above verse is also quoted. VādidevaSūri, the Śvetāmbara Ācārya, has also quoted the same verse as that of Pātrakeśari in his 'Syadvad-Ratanākara'. The same verse again occurs in the second Pariccheda titled 'anumāna prastava' of the Nyāya Viniścaya by Akalaṇka Deva. Śri Vādiraja Sūrī who is the author of the commentary (vivarana), called 'Nyāya-Viniścayalankāra', in his prologue, writes that this verse was brought from the samavasarana (assembly) of Lord Simandhara Swāmī by goddess Padmāvatī and given to Pātrakeśari. In the same work, Vādiraja Sūri also writes that Pātrakeśari Swami had elaborately dealt with the topic in his treatise called 'Trilakshana Kadarthana'. Thus, it is clear that Pātrakeśari had flourished as a great Jain Philosopher even earlier than Akalaṅka Deva.

9. Bhatta Akalanka

Bhaṭṭa Akalaṅka has obtained an unparalleled place among the Jain logicians. After Samantbhadra and Siddhasena Diwākara, it was the genius of this logician which enriched the Jain works on logic through his outstanding treatises. He is also called 'the builder of Jain Logic', and so much so that even the Jain Logic is called "Akalaṅka" logic (it is a pun). The great authors belonging to both the traditions have paid tributes to him and accepted his views without any sectarain distinction. His period is proved to be 620 - 680 A.D. on the basis of several evidence. He was contemporary of the Buddhist logician, Dharmakiri, and the *Mimārisaka* logician, Kumārila Bhaṭṭa. Akalaṅka has excellently refuted the contentions of both these logicians in his treatises.

In order to asses the contiributions of Akalańka to Jain Logic, it is first required to have a glance over the outline of Jain Logic.

We have already shown that in the first century, Ācārya Kundakunda, in his treatise *Pravacanāsara*, had presented the general characteristics of direct and indirect valid knowledge, and also only enumerated the seven predications of the *saptabhangi*. After that the author of the *Tattvārtha Sūtra*, through his aphorisms like 'matih smritih' etc. had only made an indication of the elements useful in logic

Then rose in the sky of the Jain logic, two resplendent constellations viz., Samantabhadra who, after establishing the outlines of the doctrines of anekanta and *saptabhangi* in the philosophical field, introduced the methodology of their practical application. Moreover, he enunciated the characteristics as well as the outcome of *pramāṇa*. He also established the doctrine of syadvad. He propounded that the *śrutapramāṇa* (i.e. the valid knowledge in the form of verbal (scriptural) knowledge is actually syadvad and its aspect are the *nayās* (standpoints)

After Samantabhadra, rose Siddhasena. He, in his treatise *'Sanmati Tarka Prakarana'*, presented an elaborate and original exposition of the *nayās*. And he mentioned that the way of making any statement was nothing but the *naya* and gave birth to the process of inclusion of divers philosophies in divers *nayās*.

Now, we come to the efforts of Akalanka. He made explicit whatever was unmanifested in Samantabhadra's works. For example, in the Samantabhadra's *Aptamimānsa*, there was a rather abstruse classification of *saptabhangi* (principle of seven predications) into *pramāṇa-saptabhangi* and *naya-saptabhangi*, which was made clear-cut by Akalanka in his works.

Uptill the age of Akalanka, the system of Indian Logic had undergone a great development. It was the middle age of the Buddhist philosophy. It was hey-day for the polemics. It was difficult for one to get through the polemics without taking recourse to the mal-practices or tricks like *parārthānumāna* (articulated inference), chala (fraud or prevanication), jati (futile answer), *nigraha-sthāna* (unfit to be argued with), etc. Hence, Akalanka also had to pay his after tion to all this.

Akalanka, first of all paid attention to the system of *pramāṇa* in Jain philosophy, and remoulded it to make it fit for the philosophical (logical) field. Thereafter, he opposed to the use of malpractices (or tricks) like fraud, etc. in polemics, and introduced a justified system for the judgement for victory and defeat in polemics.

His writings are very abstruse. It is for this reason that he has himself made annotations to explain his own treatises. The following treatises are representative of his original thinking and very important - (1) Laghīyastraya (2) Siddhiviniścaya (3) Nyāyaviniścaya and (4) Pramāṇa Sangraha. In the Śvetāmbara literature, there is one work titled 'Jeetakalpa Churri', on which there is a commentary written by Caridra Sūrī. In this, there is the mention of the greatly influential philosophical treatises which include Sanmati-tarka and Siddhiviniścaya. Along with these works, he has also composed the commentary called Tattvārtha Rājavartika on the Tattvārtha-Sūtra and a Bhasya named as 'Asta-Ṣaṭī' on the Āptā mimāmsā of Samantabhadra.

10. Haribhadra Süri

Muni Śri Jinavijayji has fixed the time of Ācārya Haribhadra Sūri between 700 A.D. and 800 A.D. He was one of great ācāryas of Śvetāribara tradition. He was the author of many religious and philosophical works in Sanskrit and Prākrit languages. It is said that he composed 1400 works in the form of prakaranas (small poems on a particular subject). His most popular philosophical works which are available now are: Anekāntavāda Praveš, Anekanta-Jaya-Patākā (with swopajhavritti) Vṛtti on Dignāga's Nyaya Praveš, Ṣaḍdaršana-samuccaya, Śāstra-vārta-samuccaya (with auto-commentary).

In his time, on account of the *Caityavāsi* sect, there crept in laxity in conduct of Jaina Sadhus of *Śvetāribara* sect. He has exposed their laxity and taken them to task in his *'Sambodh-Prakarana'*. His biography is given in the book "*Prabhāvaka-Carita'*".

11. Swāmī Vidyānanda

SwāmīVidyānanda was one of the eminent scholars in the *Digambara* sect. Formerly he was a Brāhmīn-Mimānsaka, he was greatly influenced by Ācārya Samantabhadra's 'Āptā-mīmāmsā' and he became a Jaina. First, he thoroughly studied the *Bhaṣya* (elaborate commentary) called *Ashtaṣaṭi* (containing 800 verses) by Akalanka on the Āptāmīmāmsa of Samantabhadra, and absorbed it. Then he wrote a gigantic commentary called *Aṣṭaṣahaśrī* (containing 8000 verses). In the very beginning of this manunoth work, he has severely criticized some concepts of *Mimāmsā* philosophy viz., *bhāvanā* (i.e., the cause of memory which arises from direct perception) and niyoga (appointed task or duty), and that of *Vedanta* philosophy viz. vidhi (a sacred command). The *Aṣṭaṣahaṣri* occupies a very high place in Indian philosophy. On account of his pleasant style, penetrating articulation and irrefutable logic, Vidyānanda has won the admiration of the scholars.

Vidyānanda was a disciple of Akalańka. After Akalańka's death, the new concepts which were introduced in the philosophical field were rationalised and modified by Vidyānanda. He based his treatise titled 'Pramāṇa Parikṣā' on Akalaṅka's works. One of his (Vidyānanda's) important works is "Tattvārtha-sloka - vārtika' which is very akin in style to Kumarūa's 'Mimāmsā - sloka - vārtika.' This treatise is also profusedly based on Akalaṅka'sideas. In the treatise titled 'Āpta - Parikṣā', there is marvellous and outstanding critique of the concept of creationism. Pandit Darbārilāl Koṭhiā has found out his period as from 775 A.D. upto 840 A.D.

12. Ācārya Mānikyanandī

Ācārya Mānikyanandī was the author of aphorisms (Sūtrakāra). His main treatise in aphoristic style is 'Parikṣā - Mukha' which is in essence a standarad work in the field of logic. There are six chapters, viz., (1) Pramāṇa, (2) Pratyakṣa, (3) Parokṣā, (4) Sense - object, (5) The result (of pramāṇa) and (6) Pseudo - pramāṇa. In the pre-Mānikyanandī period, characteristic of pramāṇa was "Swa - para - vyavasāvi - jñāna." i.e., it should be the knowledge which is determinate for the self as well as others. By adding a term apurva (i.e. unprecedented), he accepted 'Swa - apūrva - artha vyavasāyi-jnana' (i.e. the knowledge which is determinant for the self and is unprecedented) as Pramāṇa. There is no doubt that in the treatise of 'Parikṣa - Mukha' Mānikyanandī has only systematised the logic of Akalanka. Yet there is clear cut influence of the Buddhists like Dignāga and Dharmakirti in it. By the composition of the book 'Parikṣa - Mukha', Ācārya Mānikyanandī has fulfilled the need of a treatise on logic in Jain Philosophy, similar to the treatises like Nyāya - Praveša and Nyāya - Bindu in Nyaya Philosophy. His period is believed to be the 11th century of Vikram Era. He was almost contemporary of Ācārya 'Vidyānanda.'

Abhayadeva Sūrī

Švetāmbaracārya Abhayadeva Sūri was a follower of Pradyumna Sūri. He wrote a commentary in Sanskrit on the *'Sanmati - Tarka'* of Siddhasena Diwākara. On the basis of this scholion, one can know about

his extra oridinary scholarship in the field of philosophy. This scholorly commentary contains the essence of numerous philosophical works. His way of writing is different as compared to the original treatise. It can also be called as a treausre of philosophical ideas of tenth century. There is a great controversy about the topics like women's liberation, liberation of cladded ascetics, alimentary nutrition by the omniscients in the *Digambara* and the *Śvetāmbara* sects. The present commentary deals with all the above issues supporting not only the *Śvetāmbara*'s views on them, but also it endorses the adoration of the idols in this philosophical scholition. Therefore, it can be regarded as a great collection of contemporary doctrines or ideas.

14. Ācācya *Prabhācaādra*

Ācārya Prabhāchandra may be considered a scholar of the same category as AbhayDeva Sūrī. He wrote a commentary titled 'Nyāya - Kumud - Caridra' on Akalanka's 'Laghīyastraya' and another one titled 'Prameya Kamal Mārtanda' on 'Parikṣa-Sūtra' in very lucid language. The former is a representative work of his expertise in philosophy, while the latter one is that of his expertise in logic. In his works, he has refuted vigourously the Śvetāribara's doctrines of liberation of women liberation of cladded ascetics and alimentary nutrition by the omniscients. On Śaktayana's Grammar, he wrote a 'Nyās - Grantha' (i.e. an etymological treatise) which is replete with his philosophical style of thinking. He resided at Dharamagari at the time of King Bhojadeva. His time is about eleventh century A.D.

15. Vādirāja Sūrī (11th century of Vikrama Era)

Vādirāja Sūrī is one of the great logicians of the *Digambara* sect. He was contemporary of Ācārya Prabhāchandra. He had earned the epithets such as 'Ṣaṭṭarka - Sanmukha' (possessed of six faces of six polemics), 'Syādvāda - Vidyāpati' (the master of the science of the relativity - doctrine) 'Jagadeka - Mallavādi' (the toughest among the debaters of the world). He wrote a highly scholarly and original commentary, titled 'Vivarana' or Akalankdeva's 'Nyaya - Viniścaya.' It quotes references of many other works. It (the Vivarana) is full of critical remarks on Buddhist Ācārya Dharmakirti's 'Pramāṇa-Vārtika' and Prajĥakāra's 'Vārtikālankāra', which is the commentary on 'Pramāṇa - Vārtika.'

Vādirāja Sūrī was greatly respected in the royal assembly of *Cālukya* King Jaisinha-Deva. In 947 A.D., while residing in the capital of *Cālukya* King, *Vādirāja* composed his work 'Pāršvanātha - *Carita*.'

16. Vādideva Sūrī

Śvetāmbara Ācārya Vādideva Sūrī was a disciple of Municandra Sūrī. He was born in Gujrat in the year 1143. On the basis of Digambara Ācārya Mānikyanandī's 'Parikṣa - mukha', he wrote a treatise on logic in aphoristic style (in eight sections) named as 'Pramāṇa Naya Tattvaloka' and also he himself wrote an auto-commentary titled, 'Svādvāda Ratnākara', which occupies an important place in the literature of Jain logic. It is written in a lucid style and replete with quotations (references) of many other treatises.

17. Ācārya Hemacandra (12th Century of Vikrama Era)

Ācārya Hemacandra is a very-very famous Jain Scholar. By influencing the king of Gujrat, Siddharaj Jaisinha, he made him his follower. The successor ruler, Kumārpāla, was also his disciple. Ācārya Hemacandra was a versatile scholar. He wrote books on diverse subjects like grammar, poetics, laxicoraphy, philosophy, logic, yoga etc., which are available. His treatise in the field of logic is 'Pramāṇa - mimārisā' which is, however, incomplete; yet, its original aphorisms and the commentary on them occupy an important place in this field. In characteristics of Pramāṇa, Mārikyanandī had added a term 'apūrva'. Ācārya Hemacandra, however, has logically refuted it in this work (Pramāṇa - Mimārisā). Mallisena has written a commentary titled 'Syadvāda - mañjari' on a 'Dvātriṃśikā' written by Ācārya Hemacandra; 'Syādvāda-mañjāri' is just like a garden of classical thoughts of Jain philosophy.

18. Upādhyāya Yaśovijaya

In sixteenth century A.D., there flourished a great scholar in Śvetaṃbar sect called 'Yaśovijaya.' He made his studies at Kāśi. He was not only an expert in 'Navya-Nyāya' (i.e. Neo-logic) but also wrote a treatise in style of 'Navya-Nyāya'. His writings have originality. Nowhere repetition is found in his writings. Everywhere, we come across innovations. In his philosophical treatises, 'Jain Tarka Bhāṣā', 'Jñāna Bindu' and a commentary on 'Śāstra - Vārtā - Samuccaya' are worth mentioning.

19. Summary

In this lesson, we have given a brief description of eminent Jain philosophers. From it, we gather that the development of Jaina philosophy can chronologically be devided into two parts. The first part is upto Bhaṭṭa Akalaṅkadeva, and the later period is after him. In emergence and development of Jaina philosophy, Akalaṅkadeva's all round efforts are really outstanding. It was Akalaṅka deva who first of all presented the solutions to all the problems created by the non-Jain philosophical approach to the Jain philosophical thoughts. Doing so, he paved the way for his successor logicians. After him, making his views the base, not only the Digambara Ācāryās like Vidyānanda, Manikya naṅdi, Anantavīrya, Prabhācaṅdra, Vādirāj etc., but also the Śvetāmbara Ācāryās like Abhayadeva, Hemchaṅdra, Yośovijaya etc. have developed the 'Akalaṅka - Nyāya' (i.e. the logic of Akalaṅka). [Based on an article by Pt. Kailāś Caṅdra Śāstrī titled 'Prācin Jainācārya and Their Philosophical Literature', puplished in 'Jeet Abhinandan Grantha'.]

No.	Name of author	Name of main works on logic	Century of (Vikrama Er.)
1.	Kuńdakuńda	Pravacanasāra	2nd
2.	Umāsvāti (Umasvami)	Tattvārtha-Sūtra	3rd
3.	Samantabhadra	(i) Āpta-mimāmsō (ii) Yuktyānvśāsana (iii) Brihat Svayambhu-stotra	4th
4.	Siddhasena Diwākara	Sanmari Tarka, Nyāyāvatāra	5th
5.	Pujayapāda	Sa:vārthasiddhi	6th
6.	Mallavādi	Dvādasāra-Nayacakra	6th-8th(?)
7.	Jinabhadra Gaṇī Kṣamā-Śramana	Viśeṣāvaśyaka Bhāṣya	6th
8.	Pātrakeśari	Trilakṣana-Kadarthana	7th
9.	(Bhaṭṭa) A ƙalaṅka Deva	(i) Laghiyastraya (ii) Siddhiviniścaya (iii) Nyāyaviniścaya (iv) Pramāṇa-Samgraha (v) Tattvārtha-Rāja-Vārtika (vi) Aṣta-Ṣaṭi	7th
10.	Haribhadra	(i) Anekāntavada-Prevesha (ii) Anekānta-Jaya-Patākā (iii) Nyāya-Pravesha-Ţikā (iv) Ṣaṭ-Darśana-Samuchchaya (v) Śāstra-Vārtā-Samuchchaya	8th

	11.	Vidyānanda	(i) Ashtasahasri (ii) Tattvārtha-Śloka-Vārtika (iii) Pramāṇa-Parikṣā	9th			
	12.	Mānikyanandī	Parikṣā-Mukha	11th			
	13.	Abhayadeva (Sūrī)	Sanmati-Țkā	11th			
	14.	PrabhāCaṅdra	(i) Nyāya-Kumuda-Candra (ii) Prameya-Kamala-Mārtanda				
	15.	Vādi-rāja (Sūrī)	Nīyāya-Viniścaya-Viva-raṅa	11th			
	16.	Vādi-Deva (Sūrī)	(i) Pramāṇa-Naya-Tattva-Lokāla (ii) Syādvāda-Ratnākara	<i>inkara</i> 12th			
	17.	Hemacańdra	(i) Pramāṇa-Mimāṁsā (ii) Anya-Yoga-Vyavachedikā	12th			
		(Mallisena)	Dvātrimšikā Syādvāda-Maĥjari (Commentary Anya-yoga-Vyavachdikā)	on 14th			
	18.	Yaśovijaya	Jain Tarka-Bhāsha Jhāna-Bindu Śāstra-Vartā-Samuchaya Ţikā	18th			
			QUESTIONNAIRE				
1.	Give the description of the main works composed by the following Ācāryās and the special contribution made by them to the field of philosophy: (a) Kuṅdakuṅda (b) Umāsvāti (c) Samaṅtabhadra (d) Siddhasena						
2.	Object	tive Questions : Fill in th	e blanks:				
		Γhe <i>Aṣta-Pāhuḍa</i> was wiji	-				
	 Kuńdakuńda's writings are in language. There are three sections in section on knowledge, section on faith and section on conduct. 						
			on consists the description of				
	5. There are 2 main Nayās:						
	6. "Tattvārtha - Sūtra" of Umāsvāti includes Tattvās.						
	7. "Ratnakaranda Śrāvakāchār" is written by 8. Tattvārtha - Sūtra has chapters.						
			of Samantabhadra is	<u>_</u> .			
	10. F	Haribhadra lived in the	century A.D.				
	iograph Hiralal	-	in Religion to Indian Culture : 2004				

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LESSON: 16

PURĀŅA AND CARITA

Like other literature Jain monk scholars, have developed the epics of great seers. When mythological lietrature of bhraman tradition started to be wirtten, and the epics like Ramāyana, Mahābhārat and Harivanśa started becomes very famous then, even the Jain scholars started sketching the life-history of Ramā, Krisna, Tīrthankara and other great personalities. The life sketch of sixty three great personalities includes twenty four tirtharkarās, twelve cakrawarti, nine vasudeva, nine baldeva and nine prativasudevas that makes the sum sixty four-Kalpasūtra and also Vasudevahindi includes the description of Lord R shabha Arsthanemi, Pārśvanātha and Mahāvira, and other tīrthankarās. Bhadreśvara in his Kahābāli has also sketched the life history of sixty three great personalties. A good collection of the life history of sixty three great personality are found in Yatirshbhas. Tiloyepannati and Jinbhadrāgani's Višesāvasyaka bhāsya. Šīlānkācārya (šeelācārya) a disciple of Māradevsūri in 868 B.C. in his caupannamahāpurisacaria has written a life-sketch of fifty four great personalities. Many life-sketch are also written independently. For instance Vardhamānasūri, Vijaya singloa disciple of Samaprabha, Devasūri, Yasodeva, Ajitsingh, Chandraprabha, Nemichandra, Devachandra, Jinesvara, Shreechandra and Ratnaprabha has written like sketch of Adināthacarita, Sumatīnāthacarita, Padmaprabha-swāmicarita, Chandraprabhaswāmicarita, Sreyansnāthacarita, Vāsupuyyaswāmicania, Anantanātha, Shāntināthacartia, Mallināthacarita, Muni Suvrata swāmicarita, Nemināthacarita, respectively. Morever, there are mnay unpublished life sketches like Atimuktakacarita, R sidattacarita, Devakicarita, Rolfinicarita, Damayanticarita, Monoramacarita, Malayasundarīcarita, Padmāvaticarita, Sītācarita, Haribalcarita Vajracaritya, Nagdattacarita, Bharatacarita

Jain Ācāryas has also written the life-sketches of great ācārya's who flourished jain religion for instance, Jindattasūri has written Ganadharasārdhasataka.

It also consist of life sketches of many ācāryas lie Āryasamudra, Mangu, Vajrasvāmi, Bhadragupta, Tosaliputra, Āryarakshita, Umasvati, Haribhadra, Seelanka, Nemichandra, Udyotansūri, Jinacandra, Abhyadeva etc. In later stage Jinsen, Gunabhadra and ācārya Hemacandra has written a sanskrit treatise on sixty three great personalties. Then it was puspadanta and cāmundrāya who wrote the life sketches of sixty three great personalites in apbraṃsha and in kannada language. Also life histories are written in Tamil. This stories also includes the folk and religious stories.

Paumacariya (Padmacarita)

Like Vālmikis Ramāyana the paumacariya of Jain tradition describe the life-history of Padma (Rām) in 118 sections. The author of this text is Vimalsūri who is an good disciple of ācārya Rāhu of Nagil dyanasty. According to this Author, he wrote this Raghvacarita in Maharashtri Prakrit in āryacharda (a method) after 530 yrs of Vira Nirvāna (app in 60 B.C.) on the basis of Purvas (canons). According to professor Jacob the time period of Vimalsūri is 4th century A.D. on the basis of king Śrenikis querries and on the basis of Rams stroy said by Gandhar Gautam. Vimalsūri has described his paunacariya. In Intervals we also find the description of many sub-stories, cities, rivers, ponds, seasons etc. The method holds strength and flow of description. Because of the consistency in the poem framing it becomes more live. The Poetic touch are clearly observed in it on the basis of events and description. It also have a rich vocabulary. Many deśi terms are used. Many new formulation of grammars are noticed 'evi' 'karara' etc. seems to be the forms of ëapbhransh. The critics has named it as an treatise of epic by seeing its elaboration, multiplicity of subjects and formulation. Therefore it has been described in the heading of epic studies.

2. Jambūcariya (Jambūcarita)

It is beautiful treatise of prakrit language. The author of the present text is special student and disciple of Nilagacchiya Virbhadsasūri i.e. Muni Gunapala. On the basis of its writing style it inferred to be a bent of V.S. 11th century or even before that. In Jain tradition jambuswāmi is considered as the last omniscient (keveli of the cycle time) After him no Jain monk has attained Nirvanpada. After the emancipation of Lord Mahāvīra Jambuswāmi was initiated in the jain way of life Sudharmaswāmi. Sudharmaswami made Jambuswāmi listen the sermons of Lord Mahāvīra. Therefore in Jain canons we find the sermons of Lord Mahāvīra in the name of Sudha Jambu. In Jambucariya there is description of this life style. We find the influence of Samāriccakahā of Haribhadra and Kuvalayamāla of Udyotanasūri by looking to its method of writing this text contains mainly religious stories in a prose poetry formulation, language is carry to understand. There is a sequence in the story also it accommodates Jain sermons in the middle.

The text consists of sixteen chapters (uddeśaka). The name of the first chapter is *Kahāvidha* (Kathāpītha). Here stories named *artha*, *kāma*, *dharma* and *sankirna* are described The second chapter is *Khānibandha* (Kathā-nibandha). In third chapter king Srenik goes to Mahāvira to pay the homage. In the fourth chapter the last omniscient Jambuswāmi asks the questions related to Mahāvīra. Mahāvīra describes his last pre-births.

In the fifth chapter there is a description of Jambuswām's is life spam. Here it mentions *prahelikā*, *antyāksari* (song), *dvipadi*, *prāsnauttar* (question-answers), *aksarnatrabanducyuta* and *Gudhacaturthapāda*. The name of the sixth chapter is Grhidharmaprasādhana prabhava also listens to sermons of Jambu and took initiation. After the Nirvana of Jambuswāmi, Prabhava got the post of Jambuswāmi and he also attained Omniscience.

3. Sursundariya Cariya

Jineśvarasūuri who is the writes of Khāṇayakośa, his disciple Mura Dhaneśvara has written this text in easy prakrit gatha in V.S. 1905 at cannadāvati, This text is divided into sixteen chapters (*pariccheda*). In each chapter there are 250 stanzas. It is a love story consisting of a poetic touch.

Here, good figures of speech and analogies are nicely used. Different taste (*rasa*) shows the poetic skill. Wherever needed the author has used *Apabramśa* and *Gramyabhaśā*.

Dhandeva setha has relived one vidyadhara named Nāgapāśa with the help of 'Mani'. After a long isolation Citravega married to his lover. He made her listen stories of Sursundari, his love and his meeting Sesundari got married to Makarketu. At last both took initiation. Many sub-stories are so mixed that the main stories sometimes goes in background. The actors of story Sursundaris name is found in eleventh chapter. In this text there is a good description of dangerous home (atavi) aggressin of Bhila, moonsoon, autum seasons, Madan festivals, sunrise, sunset festivals of birth of son, marriage, war, nature of women's journey. In sea, welcoming of jain monk in town and there sermons.

There is a mentioning of an anthesists name Kapil who do not accepted living beings, Omniscience and *nirvana* (emancipation). For Bhuta-chikista (a tradition therapy) they low down the salt, burnt the sarso and to tie the Raksā potli (thread).

There is a beautiful description of bank of river named gambhira from where businessman use to load supari, nariyal, kapoor, agur

This verticle gradually moves ahead with precaution towards its destination. Rayaṇacudarayācariya (Ratnacudaraya Carita). This prakrit prose composed text is suggestive of a canon named Jñātirdharmakathā. The well known author of this text is ācārya a Nemichandra who is also the writer of Subodha named tika on Uttarādhyayana sūtra and ākhyānamarikośa. The work of the present text was undertaken at Dindilavaddanivesa and finished at Cadta valli pūrī this is influenced by sanskrita literary and one can also find poetic touch in it. Many Maxims and Sayinga are also used. The author at many places has tried to give natural touch even.

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Gautama Gandhan tells the story of Ratnacuda to kind Śranika. The authors other text that are famous also includes Atamabodha kulaka or bhaemopadesa Kulaka) & Mahāviracariya.

Ratnacāda when completed his 8th birthday then by dressing him in white and with flowers etc. he was sent to gurukul. Then there they gave honour to the great ācārya named Kolācarya by cloths and other things and in good constilation that was on thursday he (Ratnacuda) was sent for studies. Ratnacūda studies *chandra*, alamkara, kavya *nātaka* etc.

When he grew up some *vidyadhara* (soccerrs) kidnapped him. There is a jungel he met a ascetic penencing where he met queen Tilaksundari. Both got married. When they were on there way towards Nandipūra some *vidyadhara* kidnapped Tilaksundari Retained he then went to Ristapura. In this place is the description of Cāmundā godess temple. Ratnacūda and surānanda got married. Kings used to have discussive gatherings with their respective queens in the noon time.

Ratnacūda while commencing his journey for the Vaitādya mountain on the other mountain of bankasriga for having blessings, undertook his journey towards the temple of śāntinātha. Here is the description of śantināthas annotation, how can dreams become true or not this has been explained with analogies and examples. It also skethes the life history of Śāntināthā. In the later stage Ratnacūda got married to Rajshree and he then is assigned the kingdom.

5. Pāsanāhacariya (Pāsvanāthacarita)

Pāsanāhacariya is the second well-known treatise of the author Gunacandragaņi (After being ācārya came to be knownas Devendrasūri) who is also the famous for his Kahārayanakośa) this text was written in V.S. 1168 (Samvat 1111) at Bhaduchi. It consist the life sketch of twentythirda tārharikara pārśvanātha in five chapter composed in a prospoetry form of prakrit and also holds the varities of chanda formulations. In this poetic tretise one can easily comprehend the influence of sanskit. Many sanskrit quotations are also used here first chapter gives the description of of pāśvanaths three pre-life parths. In the first pre-life he was born at house of purohita named Marubuti His brothers name was kamatha kamatha got indulged in affairs with Marubūtiswife which was revealed to Marubūti. King on knowing this made his set on the dockey after chopping out his nose and no moved him in the entirecity. Kamatha reached in tapovan and undertook vows with the ascetics penencing there śārnitanāthas annotation, can dreams be come true or not this has been explained with analogies and examples. It also sketches the life-history of śānīnātha. In the later stage Ratnacūda got married to rājshree and he then is assigned the kingdom.

Marubhūti when approached to kamatha for repenting he killed him there by a huge stone. In the next life both were born in the species of elephanta and snake respectively.

In the second chapter Man būti was named as Kirnavega a *vidhyadhara*. In their story there is also the descriptions of pre birth made by them later Marubhūti was born as Vairanābha.

In the third preamble, Marubhūti was born in the palace of Aśvasena, king of Vārāṇasī. He was named Pārśvanātha. Here beautiful description of the city of Vārāṇasī is given. King Aśvasena celebrated the birth of his son with great pomp and glory. Birthday celebrations and other religious ceremonies were completed. When he grew up his marriage to Prabhāvati took place. Descriptions of the manner in which a marriage should be performed are given here. Kamaṭha following the austere life of the hermits started the 'Pañchāgnī tapa' (Pañchāgnī aggregate of 5 sacred fires). Many people from the city went to see him and paid worshipful homage to him. One day Pārśvanātha too went there. Pārśvanātha removed and showed a snake from the very same wood that Kamaṭha was burning in the 'Agnikunḍa' (fireplace). Kamaṭha became very ashamed. He died and was born as an evil god.

In the fourth preamble, Pārśva*nātha* gains *Kevala Jñāna* (omniscience). He preaches 10 *ganadharas*-Subhadatta, Ajjagosa, Vasitta, Bambha, Soma, Śrīdhara, Vāriseņa, Bhaddajasa, Jaya and Vijaya. Describing

the life style of residents of Banaras, it is told that imposters were famous even in those days. By reciting the Vedas, alms could be got. Sea-vessels filled with goods would sail out into the sea after offering prayers for the well being at the auspicious time. During the marriage ceremony, the use of fire for making offerings was prevalent. The priests used to chant the 'maritrās' and ladies from well born families, Kulastrī, used to sing auspicious songs. There is reference to 3 kinds of elephants Bhadra, Manda and Mrga. The high-class elephants were even then priced at over 1.25 lakhs. Ladies desirous of getting progeny would sit for 10 nights on the 'Kuśa ki ṣayyā' and offer prayers to 'Kuladevi Bhagavatī'. There is reference to the country of 'Golla'. The concept of remarriage prevailed for women whose husband died even before the 4th circle around the fire was complete, before the marriage was consummated. The custom of immersing the bones of the deceased in the river Garigā prevailed even in those days. There is a description of elephant-hunters. These people killed elephants and ate the flesh for many days. They strongly believed that instead of killing a large number of animals, it was better to kill just one. In spite of acquiring a small amount of sin, if one could gain a lot of good characteristics (Guṇa) it was considered worth while, just as, if a serpent bite the finger, to save the rest of the body the finger is cut off. The astrologers knew the mantra of Katyayani and made astrological predictions of the future by the position of the moon and sun.

In the 5th preamble, Pārśva*nātha* preaches at 'Samavasarana' in *Mathurā* on the aspects of charity. He preached the demi-gods. He then went to Kāsi. He prescribed the *dharma of 'Caturyāma* (i.e. fourfold vows)'. Finally reaching the peaks of the mountain' *Sammedaśaila*', he attained liberation.

6-a-6 Mahāvīracariya (Mahāvīracarita)

Mahāvīracarita is the 3rd work of Guṇacandragaṇi. This work consisting of 12,025 slokas was written in Samvata 1139 (1082 AD). The work of Guṇacandra speak highly of the vast knowledge he had of mantra, tantra and education, including Kriyākānḍa (rituals) Vāmamārgis and Kapali. The Mahāvīracarita consists of 8 episode of (prastāvas) which 4 describe the previous birth of Mahāvīra. There is a very colorful description of king, town, woods, forest, festival, procedure for marriages and for attaining superhuman powers. From the point of view of poetry this is a very efficacious work. The impact of Sanskrit poets like Kālidāsa, Bāṇabhattā, Māgha is evident there. This work is worthy of comparison with various Sanskrit works as well. The work is interrelated with Sanskrit slokas and a quite a few passages are in 'Avahaṭṭa' language, which are in turn influenced by the 'Nāgara Apabhraṃśa' dialect of Gujarat. In the place of words from deshi dialects, ample use of 'tadbhava' and 'tatsama' words derived from Sanskrit. The variety in use of 'meter' (chanda) is evident in this work.

In the first episode we get the narration of the attainment of 'right belief' (by the soul of Mahāvīra in his past birth). In the second one, there is description of the lives, etc. people like *Rṣabha*, Bharata, Bāhubalī and *Mārich*. In description of *Mārich*, there is reference to the initiation of Kapil and *Āsuri*. In the third episode, spring festival and the much to battlefield of *Viśvabhōti* the preaching by Ācārya *Sambhūti* and the subsequent initiation of *Vshvabhūti* is described. *Ripupratiṣaṭru* married his girl called *Mṛgāvati* without consulting his relatives and without any marriage ceremony. They gave birth to *Tripṛṣtha*, the first *Vāsudeva*. *Tripṛṣtha* waged war against *Aśvagṛīva*, in which *Aśvagṛīva* was killed.

Here, the killing of ambassador prostitute and clown is as strongly condemned as cow-slaughter. The collection of the preaching about righteousness by *Dharmagośasuri* is given here. There is description of the victory parade of Supreme Sovereign Priyāmitra.

In the fourth episode, Priyāmitra becomes a king called *Jīva*nandan. The hermit *Ghorśiva* was proficient in the art of hypnotism, etc.. King Narasingha asked Ghorśiva to demonstrate any of his magic of mesmerism of hypnotism. Ghorśiva asked the king to go to the cremation ground on the 14th dark night and perform the fire rites for the departed souls. The king accepted this. Reaching the cremation grounds, Gorśiva erected a

circular platform to recite the Vedic prayers. Then sitting in the pose of *Padmāsana*, he started reciting the prayers aloud with *prāṇāyāma* exercises.

In the same exposition, there is reference to a teacher of yogic practices called $Kah\bar{a}k\bar{a}la$. While explaining the procedure to be victorious in all the three worlds he said that you should kill the 108 main ksatriyas and offer prayers through fire to the dead, and offer sacrifices to the deities protecting the different directions, and keep reciting the prayers for immortality.

In this work there is also description of a great wrestler called Kalamega. Nobody was able to win him in wrestling. The king of that country honoured him by giving him the 'unconquerable'. *Naravikramakumāra* defeated him in wrestling and married $\hat{S}\bar{t}lamat\bar{t}$. Later, Naravikramakumar along with $\hat{S}\bar{t}lamat\bar{t}$ and his sons leaves the city and goes away and staying with a gardener earns his livelihood by selling garlands. A merchant called Dahil take $\hat{S}\bar{t}lamat\bar{t}$ through deception on his ship and kidnaps her. In the end *Naravikramākumāra* is united with his wife and children. *Naravikramakumāra* gets initiated in Jainism and attains selvation.

The soul of Nandana was conceived by the wife of a Brāhmīn called <code>DevāNaidā</code>. In the embryostate, he was transplanted into the womb of a warrior's wife called <code>Tṛśalā</code> living in the village called <code>Kṣaṭriyakunda</code>. The child was named as Vardhamāna. The birth festival was celebrated grandly. Because of his valour, he known as <code>Mahāvīra</code> (the great hero). When he grew up he went to school to study. He gets married to <code>Yaśodā</code>, the daughter of <code>Samaravīra</code>, the king of <code>Vaṣantapura</code>. The marriage ceremony was celebrated with great pomp and show. <code>Mahāvīra</code> become then father of a daughter named <code>Priyadarśanā</code>. When he was 28, his mother died. His elder brother <code>Nandīvardhana's</code> coronation took place. With his brothers' permission he got his initiation into ascetic life. '<code>Niṣkramaṇa Mahotsava</code>,'¹ is celebrated with great pomp and show.

In the fifth episode, the enlightening of Śūlapāṇi and Canḍakouśika has been narrated. Outside the village Kṣaṭriyakuṇḍa, in the garden of Jñātrikanḍa, Mahāvīra got initiation into asceticism and after reaching village Kumargrāma he got engrossed in mediation. He gave his Deva-dūśya² to a Brāhmīn named Soma. A farmer caused tribulation in the Kummaragrāma. Wandering through woods he reached the village by name Vardhamāna, also called Asthigrama. Here a Yakṣa (spirit) named Śūlapāṇi caused great tribulations. Reaching a hermitage called Kanakakhala, he sermonized a serpent, Canḍakauśika. Here the story of a poor Brāhmīn called Gobhadra has been narrated. Gobhadra's wife requested him to go to Vārāṇasi to earn wealth. In those days, kings, emperors and great people from faraway places came and stayed in Vārāṇasi. Some used to come there with the desire to get the heaven in the next life some with the hope of earning wealth, some with the desire to cleanse their sins, while some to make offerings to their deceased ancestors. People who came from far and wide performed great sacrifices donated food, gold or silver to pay their respects to the Brāhmīns.

Gobhadra had left for Vārāṇasi. On the way, he met an enlightened Siddhapuruṣa.¹ Both of them traveled together. Siddhapuruṣa, through the power of his maritrās prepared food and created a bed and surprised Gobhadra. (In the episode, there is vivid description of the beautiful city of Jālandara adomed by beautiful women and yoginies. Two yogini sisters Candralekhā and Candrakāntā lived here. Spending the nights in monastries, they reached Vārāṇasi after some time. On reaching there, they worshipped to deities like Skanda, Mukunda and Rudra. They reached the banks of Gangā. The 'Siddhapuruṣa' gave his talisman ring to Gobhadra and went to bathe in the Ganges, and started doing prānāyāma. After a while when the Siddhapuruṣa did not come out of the water, Gobhadra became worried. He did not know if his companion had been washed away or swallowed by a crocodile or if he was caught in mire. He communicated this to the divers. They dived into the Ganges, and searched for the Siddhapuruṣa everywhere but could not find any trace of him. Finding that his companion did not come back, Gobhadra started lamenting and praying to the river Ganga. Nearby was seated an atheist. He reasoned with Gobhadra, saying "Will Mother Ganga return your companion because of your lamenting? Water that touches people from different countries with diseases

like leprosy etc. flows in the Ganga; this demoness who consumes numerous corpses and bones cannot fulfill your wishes, and that if bathing in Ganga brings in virtue, then fish, tortoise and other living things should be more blessed with virtue." Gobhadra the Brāhmīn, stayed in *Vārāṇasi* for a day and then left. He went to Jalandar and was amazed to see *Siddhapuruṣa* there. After that, Gobhadra returned home. But at that time, his wife had passed away. He sought initition into asceticism from Sage *Dharmaghoṣa*. But on account of his anger, Godhadra was reborn as a called Serpent 'Candakauśika'.

During his wanderings, Mahāvīta reached 'Seyaviyā'. There he was shown hospitality by King *Pradeši*. Here there is the description of the earlier births of *Nāgkumaras* named *Kambala* and *Śambala*. There is also mention of the journey of Yaksa, named *Bhandira*.

In the 6th episode the details of *Gośal's* disobediance are given. The meeting of Mahāvīra and *Gośal* took place at a city called *Nālandā* near *Rājagṛha*. There lived a village-watchman called *Keśava* Uttarapatha in a city called Silindha. His wife gave birth to a son called Mankh. Mankh used to roam around the villages carrying pictures. He reached of Campā while wandering. There lived a househlder named Mankhali. His wife was called *Subhadrā*. Mankhali stayed with Mankh and started serving him, while learning singing and various arts. Mankhali then took the pictures and left with his wife. Reaching a hamlet called Saravana, Subhadra gave birth to a son called Gośala, in a cowshed. When Gośala grew up he quarreled with his parents and started living alone. It was he who became famous as 'Mankhaliputra Gośala'. After some time he got intiated by Mahāvīra and both the teacher and the disciple started living together.

There is the mention of the stories of the previous births of a spirit named *Vibhelaka* in the details of Mahāvīra's travels. There is also a detailed description of the marriage of *Sūrsena* and *Ratnāvali*. There is also the description of renunciation of alcohala, meat and dinner after sunset. The tribulations caused by a female spirit named 'Kaṭpuṭanā' are stated here. Mahāvīra traveled along with Gośāla through Vajrabhōmi in the interior country side of Lādhadeśa, a province of primitan people. There is also mention of the method of teaching the art of seduction by the prostitutes. While descriptions the episode of Vardhyasan the hermit by whom was inscribed to get Gośāla.

In the 7th episode there is the description of Mahāvīra's capability to withstand hardships and the attaining omniscience. On his reaching *Vaiśā'i*, Śankha greeted him with respect and showed him hospitality. While crossing the river Gandaki, a boatman created trouble. Ānandagrahapati offered Mahāvīra food in the village Vanijyagrāma. In Dṛḍhūmi, Sangama caused him troubles. After this, Mahāvīra dwelt/passed through places like Kauśāmbi, Vārānasi and Mithilā. In Kausambi, after obtaining the teachings of Candana. In another event, his ears were pierced with nails. Upon reaching 'Madhyama Pāvā', Mahāvīra attained omniscience.

In the 8th episode, there is narration of Mahāvīra attaining salvation. In the Mahāsena gardens of 'Madhyam Pāvā', the Samavasarana was erected. The preaching of the Lord were absorbed by 11 pontif (ganadhara) and they attained spiritual awakening and got initiation. Here, the initiation of Candan Bālā and the establishment of Chaturvidha Sangha' is described. The initiations of Rṣabhadatta, Devānandā and Samavasaran at Kṣatriya Kunḍa, The initiation of Jamāli, the son in law of Mahāvīra, with the approval of his parents enlightening. Jamālis' invocation, Priyadarśana's knowledge, the grand festival of the spirit Surapriya, the death of king Śatānika the initiation of queen Mṛgāvati, Gośāl's arrival at Śrāvasti, his initiation as one of the Tīrtankars, his turning to celibacy, the death of Gośāla, the curing of Mahāvīra by medicines brought by Sinha, the previous births of Gośāla, Mahāvīr's sermons on dharma to Śrenika and others at Rajgṛaha the initiation of Meghakumāra the stories of the 12 penances to enlightenment of Prasanna Chandra, asceticism, Gāgali, Mahāvīr's arrival in Mithilā, and the festival of his attaining salvation.

Supāsanāha Cariya (Supārśvanātha Carita)

Supāršavanātha Carita is written in Prakrit and is the life story of Supāršvanātha, who was 7th Tīrthankara.

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The life story of Supārśavanātha, in this work, ends briefly as it deals mainly with his teachings. Numerous folklores related to transgressions of 12 vows of Śravakās are given here. In these stories, the importance of intelligence and the talent for art are described in simple and moving style. Alongwith this, secular activities, social traditions, political conditions and the moral practices, etc. are also depicted. The writer of Supārśvanātha Carita, Lakṣmaṇagani, was a colleague of Sri Candrasūri and a disciple of Hemacndra Sūri. In Vikrama Saṃvat 1199 (1142 A.D.), during the year of the coronation of King Kumārapāla, he wrote this epic. The author has referred to teachers like Haribhadrasūri in the beginning of the book with great respect. Incidentally there is also use of Sanskrit and Apabhraṃśa languages. Many maxims are also collected in this book.

In talking about the earlier births, there is mention of the earlier births of Supārśvanātha. Also mentioned is the greatness of Jains as a caste among other castes extempore sermons amongst other sermons giving of knowledge as charity in comparison to other charities and the state of Samādhi as compared to death.

In the second preamble while describing the birth and death of the Tirthankars, there is also a description of celebration of birth by the devas on Mount Meru. In the 3rd Preamble called Kevaljñāna (enlightenment), Lakuṭāsana, Garuḍāsan, Chattha Aṭṭhama and other severe penance are described; with these descriptions is a mention of how the Tirthankars obtained enlightenment using these penances. This is followed by the teachings of God. In this section many stories are described.

Here 'Gāruḍa Mantra' and 'Avasvāpini Vidyā' are also mentioned. In Sinvaccakahā, there is mention of a school. Monsoon are also described. At that time, the peasants plough their fields, they spur their bullocks by clicking their tongues and pulling the tails. In the 'Sīha Kathā' there is a description of a yogi with a unique coloured cap on his head. He had a 'tilak' of Sandal paste wore animal skin and was grunting. In the 'Kamalasitti Kahā' there is a description of a vehicle filled with mangoes. Part of sused to be ordered from Pāsaradeśa. In the story of Bandhudata drop of water containing so many organism that even the whole Jambūdwīpa could not house them.

In Devadattakathā there is mention of Bhūtabali and Šāsana Devi. There is mention of Bengal Desh speaking states in the Vīrakumarakathā. There are also tales of offerings of Kaner flowers and Googal etc. on mountain Malaya to please Tripurā Vidyā Devi. There is a discussion about Indramaha, Skandamaha and Nāgamaha in the Dultha Kathā. There is also an exposition of the foregoing of dinner. A person who skips dinner lives for a 100 years and he gets the benefit of 50 years fasting. In the Sīhakathā there is mention of a spirit named Kapardika. There is a description of the story of Malayacanda, which deals with the exposition of Maldeva and Salekanā, when there is excessive enjoyment. In the end there is description of Supārśvanātha.

Sudamsanacariya (Sudarsanā Carita)

In the Sudamsanā hariya, there is description of the Jaina temple of Muni Suvratanātha, named Šakunikavihāra. This beautiful poetry is in the Prakrit language. Sanskrit and Apabhraṃśa have also been used. The author of this book is Devendrasūri (died 1270), the student of Jagatcandrasūri. According to the permission granted by king Gurjar, minister Vastupāla honoured him with Sūripāda at Arbōdagiri (Ābū). There are eight orders namely Dhanapāla, Sudarśanā, Vijayakumāra, Šīlavati, Aśvāvabodha, Bhrātā, Dhātrīsuta, and Dhātrī are included in 16 chapters. Totally there are more than 4000 ballads. It is a mature piece of work with many nuanees of the language used. A lot of light is thrown on the then prevalent social practices and situations.

In the first chapter, there is description of the Dharmakathā (the ways of Dharma) in the introduction of Shretiputra Dhanapāla. In these tales discussion of right, women, food and common man have been restricted, as it is said that these are the main hindrances to the Dharmakathā. In the second chapter the birth of Sudarśanā is described. Sudarśanā grows goes to school and learns scripts, maths and other arts. In the 3rd chapter Sudarśanās education is tested. She gets to know her previous existence. A merchant by the name of R ṣabhadatta from

Bharuyakutcha (Bhadauṃca) goes to the king's court bearing gifts. He narrates the properties of horses by appreciating horses named Tukkhār.

In the 4th chapter named Dharmādharmavichār, a priest, Jñānanidhi, enters the kingís court. He preaches the teaching of the Brahmin caste. But Sudarśanā breaks up his teachings and gives an exposition on Sainthood. In the 5th chapter, Šīlamati weds Vijayakumāra. Šīlamati is kidnapped because of which Vijayakumāra wages war against Vidyādhāra. In the 6th chapter, there is a description of the Dharmopadesa given by a wandering bard cum sage named Dharmayasa. In the 7th chapter Sudarsanā along with her parents and others leaves for Bharuyakatcha from Simhaladwip. They reach Bandargāha. Sudaršanā proceeds further by boat with Silamati. In this, vehicles like Bohitya, Kharakuliya, Bedullah, Aavatta (the round boat), Kurappa are listed. Nettapatta, Siyapatta, Dochadiya, turbans, musk, ghorochan, camphor, sugara, kumkum, black aloe wood (Kala guru), Padmasāra, rubies, ghī, oil, fruits, vasti, firewood, Ela, kamkol, leaves of Evergeen trees, supāri, coconut, dates, raisins, nutmegs, Nārāca, laggers, mace, spade, savvala, thāona, kaḍag, janpān, sukhōsana, khatta, tūli, cāurī, masūrikā, thread, gulaniya, patamandapa and numerous varieties of gold, gems and jewellery etc. were heaped on these boats. The eighth chapter is the biggest of them all. In this, description of Vimalagiri, teachings of a great saint, the wedding of Vijayakumāra and Šīlamati, initiation of Vijayakumāra, Dharmopadesa, the importance of supreme happiness relating to pure charity and Kalavati as an example of serenity, the views of Naravikrama on expressing emotions and feelings are described. It is also advised here to stay away from the company of women.

In the 9th chapter the welling up of feelings of detachment in Sudars na on seeing the sage are described. In the 10th chapter the effect of 'Navakāramantra' the tale of Šreyānskurnāra, the formation of R sabhadeva, the enlightenment of Bharata, the story of king Narasundar, the instance of king Mahābala, the story of Jīmavṛṣabha (Jeema, the bull) etc., are mentioned. The importance of skipping dinner is also told. In the 11th chapter there is a description of Brgukacchā's attempts at gaining knowledge. To give knowledge to Aśva, Bhagawana Munisuvratanatha arrives there. And Asva recollects his previous existence. In the 12th chapter there is a description of the creation of Bhagawana Munisuvratanathas prasad as per the orders of Sudarsana. Inbimb's rules of establishment comes to an end. Upon completion of the Jain Monastry on banks of the Narmada, ceremonies in praise of it and other rites take place. In the 13th chapter the different types of penances like the Ratnāvali etc. done by Sudaršanā along with Šīlavati are described. In the 14th chapter at the holy place of Satruniaya the arrival of Mahavīra and his Dharmopadeša are described. There is mention of the initiation of king Mahāsena in the 15th chapter. In the 16th chapter Dhanapāla takes Sangha with him on a journey of Raivatagiri. Here there is a description of the abode of the Jains from Neminātha on Ujjain Mountain Dhanapāla first sang the praises of Neminātha in poetry and prose in Sanskrit and then poetry in Prakrit. Upon returning from the journey Dhanapāla having completed his pilgrimage took up the lifestyle of a householder and started biding time.

Kanhachariya (Kṛṣnacarita)

Similar to the Ramacarita many biographies of Kṛṣṇa have also been written in Prakrit. The author of this is Tapāgacchīya Devendrasūri who also wrote Sudaṃsanacariya. This life story has been taken from the profession of 'Srāddhadinakṛtya' (priests who pray for the soul of the deceased and in this the life story of Neminātha is also entwined.

The following are described in the above mentioned work: the previous births of Vāsudeva, the birth of Kaṃsa, the mistake of Vāsudeva, the kidnapping of maidens from various kingdoms, the narrative of Cārudatta; Rohinis wedding, the previous births of Kṛṣṇa and Baladeva, the narrative of Nārada, kidnapping of Devaki, the birth of Kṛṣṇa, the previous birth of Neminātha, the festival celebrating birth of Nemi, slaying of Kamsa, the construction of the city of Dwārikā, the principal queens of Kṛṣṇa, the birth of Pradyumna, the lineage of the Pānḍavas, the previous birth of Draupadi, the fight against Jarasandha, victory of Kṛṣṇa, birth of

Rājimati, the discussion of the wedding of Neminātha with Rājimati, Nemināth's return without getting married, his initiation, dharmopadesha kidnapping of Draupadi, the narrative of Gajasukumala, the initiation of the Yādavas, the story of Darldana Rishi (sage), the dialogue between Rathanemi and Rājimati, the narrative on Tāvaccāputra, the story of Shylock, the attack on Dwārikā by Dwīpāyan, the difference between Rāmā and Kṛṣṇā, death of Kṛṣṇā, the grief of Balādeva initiation of Paṇḍavās and the Nirvāṇa (to attain salvation) of Neminatha. Kṛṣṇa died and went to the 3rd hell and in the future he will become a tīrthankara named Yaman. Baladeva will earn perfection at his (Kṛṣṇa's) sacred place.

Kummāputtacariya (Kūrmāputracarita)

In Kürmäputracarita the story of Kürmäputra is present and has been written in 198 verses in Prakrit. Jinamänikya or his disciple Anantahamsa is considered to be the author of this epic. It has been written in the year 1513. It is possible that it was created in North Gujrāta. The language of Kummāputtacariya flows easily and alankārís has not been used. The rules of grammar have been followed. Emotions that are pure have been described in the story of Kummāputta. The greatness of charity, piety and appearance (beauty) have been talked about. In the end, he gets kevala jūana even while leading the life of a householder. Such things like unattainability of birth as a human being the importance of non-violence, the decadence of religious rites, the sacrifice of carelessness have been explained.

Manipaticharita

The author of Manipaticharita is Haribadrasuri, who is the student of the great Maanadev and the student of Upādyāya Jinapati. In this lifestory there are 646 ballads. Haribadrasuri composed this in the year Vikram Saṃvat 1172 (1115 AD). In this, there are Sanskrit compositions also. There is also a compilation of 16 stories in th form of dialogues between a merchant named Kuncika and a sage called Manipati. The king of the city of Maṇipatika, Manipati by name, abdicated his throne to his son and gets his initiation. While performing penances at a cemetery outside Ujjain, his body is consumes by fire. Merchant Kuncika brings the ascetic to his house treats him there. The ascetic is accused of theft. While Kuncika relates the tale of the elephant, the ascetic Manipati proves his innocence by narrating the tale of a necklace. In this way a long discussion goes on between them in the form of 8 tales narrated by each, starting from afternoon. In the end, the merchant Kunchik becomes detached to the world and renounces it to become a monk.

Other Biographical

Apart from this, in Samvat 1127 (A.D. 1070), Candraprabhamahattara, the disciple of Abhayadevasūri wrote the Vijayacandakevalicariya, at the township of Devāvaḍa, on the request of Vīradeva. In this 1163 verses containing examples of the importance of the 'Astavidhapūjā' have been presented. The 'Astavidha are water, sandalwood, paste, Akshat (yellow coloured rice) flowers, lamps, incense, naivedhya (offerings) and fruits. Vardhamānsūri, the student of Abhayadevasūri in the year 1083 wrote, Manoramācariya, a collection of 15000 ballads and Adınāhacariya, a collection of 11000 slokas. The ballads of Apabramsa can also be found in this work. At this time Devendrasūri, the teacher of the famous Hemacandrācārya, wrote Santinahacariya, a collection of 12000 slokas. In 1104, Santisūri, student of Nemicandrasūri, on the plea of his student Municandra wrote Puhavicandacariya, Maldhārihemacandra wrote the Nemināhacariya and his student Šrīcandra, in the year 1135 wrote the Munisuvvayasāmicariya. Šrīcandrasūri, the student of Devendra sūri in the year 1157 wrote the Sanangkumāracariya. Śrīcandrasūriís student, Vāṭagacchiya haribadhra, wrote the life stories of the 24 tīrthankara on the behest of Siddharāja the Prime Minister of Kumārapāla and Pṛthvīpāla. In this Canadapaha Cariya, Mallināhacariya and Nemināhacariya are found. Mallināhacāriya has 3 proposals. The author of Kumārapālapratibhodha, wrote in 9000 ballads the Sumatrināhacariya and in Vikrama Saṃvat 1410 (Year 1353) Munibhadra wrote the Santināhacariya. Nemicandrasūri, for the good of the masses, wrote the Anantanāha Cariya in which the 'Pūjastaka' are mentioned. Giving the example of the Kusumapūjā, it is said that this can vanquish blackmagic, bring about auspicies and fight poverty.

Apart from Prākrit, biographies have also been written in Sanskrit and Apabhraṃśa. Pamp, Ratna and Honna, wrote the biographies of the Tīrthankars in the Kannada language. In these, the biographies in Apabhraṃśa are full of literary nuances and the tradition of biographical accounts in poetry become important in this respect. In the following paragraphs there is a briefintroduction to the poetical biographies in Apabhraṃśa.

The Biography of Tirthankars in Apabhramsa

The biographies of various tīrthankars have been written in Apabhramśa, as independent Poetries. 'Candappahacariu was written by Yasah Kīrti at the prayer of Siddhapāla of Hummadakula. It was written in 11 acts. This is the same Yasaḥ Kīrti, who worte Harivansapurāṇa in the 15th Century. Not only this, the Candappahachariu was also written in the 15th century. The Santināhacariu was written by Mahīcandra in Vikrama Samvat 1587 at Yoginīpura (Delhi) during the reign of Emperor Babar. The poet, in his style, has described Māthura Sangha (community), Yasahkīrti of the Puşkaragana, Malayakīrti and Gunabhadrasūri, the lineage of Bhojaraja of the Agarwal dynasty and of the dynasty of Sādhārana, the son of Jñānacandra. Nemināhacariu was written by Haribhadra in Vikrama 1216. Till today, one part of his has been published as Sanatkumāra Carita and has come to light. One more Nemināha Cariu has been written by Lakhamadeva (Laksmanadeva) in which there are 4 acts and 83 scenes. In the beginning, the poet has described his hometown of Gonanda Nagar in the country of Mātava and has referred to his lineage of Puravada dynasty: The date as to when this was created is not known, but from the style of writing, which corresponds to the period Vikrama Samvat 1510, it can be conclusively proved as a work belonging to that period. The Pāsanāhachariu, was written by Padmakīrti in the year 992 Vikrama Samvat, in 18 acts. The author, in the traditional guru-paramparā referred to Candrasena, Mādhavā Sena and Jina Sena of Sena Sangha (Sen lineage). The second Pāsarāhacariu has been written by poet Śrīdhara in the year Vikrama Samvat 1189. This consists of 12 acts. The poets father was Golla and motheris name was Bīlhā. Crossing the river Yamuna from Haryana they came to Delhi. There, with the inspiration from Nattala Sāhū of the Agarwal family they created this. This piece of work corresponds to 15th century or thereabouts. Vaddhamāna Kahu is the biography of the last tīrhankara written by Jayamitra halla. This contains 11 acts. It was written for Sanghādhipa Holivarma, the son of Devarāya. One of the manuscripts corresponds to the period Vikrama Samvat 1545. Therefore the entire text should have been written much before this date. The last 6 acts deals with the biography of King Śrenika. It is not only complete in its existing form but also corresponds to the original text. The Raidhukṛta Samaināha Cariu has been completed in 10 acts. The author has referred to his guru as Yasaḥkīrti. Therefore this piece of work must correspond to the period 1500 Vikiama Samvat or thereabouts. Vaddhamānakahā written by Narasena belongs to the period Vikrama Samvat 1512. The Mahāvīrcarita in Apabhraṃśa written by the disciple of Jineśwara Sūri has been referred to, in the Jaina texts.

Various Biographical Poetry

Apart from the biographies of the tīrthankarās, all poetical biographies written in Apabhrahṃśa, following the rules of poetry are as under:- There are many works by Puṣpadanta, the poet of Tisatthi-Mahāpurisa-gunālankāra Jasahara Cariu and Nāyakumāra Cariu. Yaśodhars biography is very popular as it brings out the short comings of violence and the advantages of non-violence. On this, close to 30 texts have been written ranging from the Yaśastilaka campu by Somadeva in Sanskrit, till the 17th century. From the point of view of poetical style Somadevas Sanskrit works and Puṣpadants work in Apabhraṃśa, Jaśaharacariu are amongst the works of excellence. These two works belong to the same period of the 10th century within a gap of 5-7 years. Jasaharacariu is divided into 4 acts. In Rājapura, the capital of Yaudheya, king Māridata met Bhairavānanda, a Kāpālikācārya (a Shaivite ascetic who carries a skull) on the instructions of this Kāpālikācārya the king organizes of human sacrifice to learn the art of levitation. For this sacrifice one of the servants, Jain muni sudatts disciple Abhayaruci and his sister Abhayamati were brought. Impressed by their appearance the king enquired about their lineage. Upon this Abhayaruci started narrating his last 6 previous births. In the

country of Avanti, the king Yasodhara, the grandson of Yasobandhura of Ujjain and the son of Yasorha ruled. (IS) Yasodhara saw his queen Amrtamati fornicating with a hunchback, and feeling dejected thought of renouncing the world. However his mother stopped him. Amrtamati murdered both of them. After their death, their spirits started roaming in the form of various animals; when their own son Jasavai and his wife Vyabhichārinī slaughtered them. (2S) After undergoing sufferings in the form of spirits of various animals. finally both of them were born as son and daughter of Jasavai. During one of Jasavaiís visit to the forest for hunting he met Muni Sudata and let loose his dogs on him. However due to the powerful impact of the sage, the dog humbly bowed before him. A merchant explained the greatness of the sage to the king and the king realized the powers of the saint. Realising that the sage is avadhijfiani the king enquired about the lineage of his parents in his previous birth and his grandmother. Saint explained to him of all his previous births and told him that his father and grandmother have today taken birth as his son and daughter-Abhayaruci and Abhayamati. (3S), Listening to this, the king Jasavai realized the futility of life in this world and decided to take initiation. His sons and daughters also came to know of their previous births the observed the penances of ksullaka. They were found dwelling with Sudatta muni, by the courtiers of Māridata and were brought to the court. On hearing this episode King Māridata decided to take initiation with Devi from Sudatmuni. (S4) This epic has been presented with lot of poetic beauty by Puspadanta (Kārānjā 1932).

In the story of Sruta Pancami, Puspadanta has described the 9 births of kāmadeva which finds reference in Nāyakumāracariu. King Jayandhara and queen Višālanetrā gave birth to the Prince Šrīdhara in Kanakapura of Magadhadeśa. Later the king saw the portrait of Prthvīdevi, the queen of Giri Nagara of Saurāstra and falling for her beauty married her as well. (S1) Pṛthvīdevi gave birth to a son who fell in the tank in the jain temple. The snakes there saved him and therefore he came to be known as Nagakumara. Gaining varied knowledge, Nāgakumāra grew into a youth. Two dancers named Manohārī and Kinnarī fell in love with him and he married them. His mother and grandmother were upset and his half-brother Srīdhara too hated him and tried to murder him. Śrīdhara failed in his attempt to kill him, however Nāgakumāra through his strength and valour brought Śrīdhara under his power. The animosity between the two, increased. (S3) The popularity of the strength and valour of Nāgakumāra increased and the Prince of Mathurā, Vyāla, hearing a prophecy became his follower. Šrīdhara, considering Nāgaltumāra as his greatest enemy planned to murder him. The father, to solve the problem, asked Nāgakumara to go on a nationwide tour for sometime. Nāgakumāra left the capital and reached Mathura. Here he released Shīlavati, the daughter of KingVinayapāla of Kānyakubja, from the prison and brought her back to her father. From here he went to Kashmir, where he met Tribhuvanarati, the daughter of King Nanda and defeating her in verbal exchange, married her. From here he went to the Ramyaka forest, and was welcomed by Bhīmāsura who lived in the Black caves. (S5) With the help of a map he reached the caves of Kanchan and acquired varied knowledge and also earned enormous wealth collected by king Jīta satru in Kāla Belāla caves. Thereafter he met Laksmimati the daughter of king Vanraja of Girishikhara and married her. Here he heard from sage Srutidhara that Vanaraja was fom the royal family of Pundravardhana and not that of Kirātha. His ancestors had been driven out 3 generations earlier by an heir. Vayāla went to Pundravardhana as per Nāgkumārs orders and Vanrāja was installed as king once again. (S6) After that Nagakumara went towards Mount Urjayanta. On the way he learnt of the attack on Girinagara by King Candapradyota of Sindha and went there. He saved his uncle from the attackers and married his uncleis daughter Guravati. He then went to alamganagara and killed the tyrannical king Sukanta, and married Rukmani, Sukantai's daughter. He then came to Gajapura and married Candra, king Abhicandra's daughter. (S7) He heard from Mahavyāla of the beautiful princess of Ujjain and going there married her. He then went towards the Kişkindamalaya where, upon defeating the princess in the contest as to who could play the Mrdanga (a percussion instrument) better, married her. From there he went to the Toyavali islands and using his knowledge, freed the maidens who were held captive (S8). Leaving Paṇḍya Deśa Nāgkumāra went to Dantīpura in Andhradesa and married the princess there. He then met sage Pihitāsrava from whose mouth he learnt of his and his beloved wife Laksmimatis previous births and also heard described the benefits of the Srutapamcami

fast. At this time his fathers minister Nayandhara came to take him back. His elder brother Śrīdhara had taken initiation. His parents too took initiation after making him the king. Nāgakumāra ruled for a long time. Eventually he abdicated the throne in favour of his son, Devakumāra, along with Vyāla and other well wishers took up initiation as Digambara. He attained Swarga (heaven) upon his death (S9). Puṣpadanta has narrated this complicated story with varied descriptions, intricate nuances of language with imagery, emotions and style making it interesting. (Kāronja, 1933).

Dhanapāla, the author of Bhavisayattakahā (Bhavisyadatta Kathā), was born in the Dhakkada family of the Vaiśya caste. His fatheris name was Māyesar (Maheśwara) and mothers name was Dhanaśri. His period is not definitely known but is estimated to be the 10th century. The story is divided into 22 acts. The protagonist Bhavisyadata is a son of a merchant. He goes to trade to a foreign country with his step-brother Bandudatta, earns money and gets married. But his step-brother cheats him time and again and causes him grief. So much so, he leaves him behind on a small island and returns home with his wife and wants to many her. But, Bavisyadata returns home with the help of a sprit, and reclaims his rights and pleasing the king, gets married to the princess. In the end, after hearing about his previous birth from a sage, becomes detached and becomes a sage. This has been written mainly to bring out the importance of the Śrutapanchami Vratha. Many instances in the epic are beautiful and interesting. The childhood pranks, sea voyage, the wreck of the boat, Ujāḍānagara, the journey in an aeroplane are worth reading. Even though there were no aeroplanes in that period, the descriptions of the same are very lively and realistic. (Gaekwad Serees Vadodara)

Karakaṃḍa Cariu- The author sage Kanakamar has talked about himself, he is a descendant of the dvija dynasty and of the Chandraṛṣi lineage. He become a digambar due to his detachment, his teacher was Budhamangaladeva and he wrote this biography due to his affection for a royal minister of the township of āsāyī. It is said about the minister that: he was affectionate to Vijayapāla Narādipa, companion of Nṛpabhūpāla (Nijabhūpāl) and an entertainer for Karnanarendra, his three sons Āhula Ralhu, Rāhula who were devotees of the sage. It is possible that the Karna, referred to by the sages, was the king of the Kalacuri dynasty and Vijayapāla was the king of Candela dynasty at the same time. According to this the period for this epic is proved to be around 1050 A.D. from the poets mention of Svayambhū and Puṣpadanta, it is definitely after 965 A.D. This epic has been completed in 10 acts. The protagonist, Karkanḍa, is considered to be an expert on Jain and Buddhist traditions.

He was the son of King Dhatrivāhana of Campānagari of Angadeśa and Queen Padmāvati; but due to a mad elephant kidnapping the queen, his buth took plae at a graveyard near Dantipura. He was brought up taught by an elephant, Upon the death of the king of Danipura he became the king by the grace of the Gods. King Dhātrdivāhana of Campa sent a message that Karakanda should accept that dhātrdivāhana was superior to him. He refuted this and attacked Campāpura. When the battle between father and son was in full swing Padmāvati appeared before them and introduced them to each other. Then Karakandu became the king of Campāpura. He traveled to conquer the Souther kingdoms of Ceras, Colas and Pandiyas. He came to know of an ancient Jain cave in the hills nearTerapura. Then he conquered the regions till the Sinhal islands and married many beautiful princesses. In the end he took up the religion of Sage Shilgupta, did penance and attained Moksa (Salvation). In this text there are many of the small anecdotes told to Karkanda by the elephant that taught him. Three such stories are so big that each is a complete act in itself. In the 5th act there is a description of the making of the ancient cave at Terapura and the installation of one of the Jaina idols, on the mountain. In the 6th act there is a narrative by king Naravāhanādatta of the grief felt by Karkanda when his beloved wife Madanāvali was carried away by a rogue elephant. In the 8th act, there is a narration of aridamana and Ratnalekas separation, and reunion by the Goddess in acknowledgement of Rativega, standing by her husband Karakanda in is time of grief. In the text there is beautiful description of graveyard, river Ganges, the rising of the ancient Jaina idol from the ground and the grief of Rativega etc. (Kāranja 1934).

Paumasicieariu (Padma Śrī Carita)

Dhāhila, the author of this work, has talked about himself to the extent that his father's name was Pārśwa and mother's name, Mahāsatī Sōrāyī (Sūradevi). He has also referred to his being a descendent of saint Māgha, the author of Šiśupāla Kāvya. The exact period of this work is uncertain, however, based on the ancient style, it can be presumed to be a part of the works around the period Vikrama Samvat 1199. This work consists of 4 acts. The Heroine Padmaśrī was the daughter of a merchant in a previous birth. She became a child widow and lived her life with her two brothers and their wives. On the one hand she felt jealous of her brother' prosperity and was afflicted with sorrow; on the other hand, she did a lot of work. In the second birth due to her religious good deeds, she was born as a princess. But due to the past wrong deeds that were carried forward, she had to endure the sorrow of being rejected by her husband. In spite of that, through meditation and prayers, she ultimately got Kevalajñāna and attained salvation. In the poetry, the city and the country have been beautifully described, as have the longings of the heart, dusk and dawn, and nature been beautifully portrayed. (Singhi Jain Series, Bombay).

Saņakumāra Cariu (Sanatkumāra Carita)

Sanakumāra Cariu (Sanatkumāra Carita) is the work of Haribhadra, the disciple of Srīcandra and also the student of Jitacandra and has completed Neminīcariu in Vikrama Samat 1216. This Sanakumarachariu, consisting of 343 verses, from 443 to 785 verses in Nemīnicariu is the poetry which has found publication. The hero Sanatkumāra was the son of the King of Gajapura, Aśwasena. Once during the Madanotsava, he, riding the fastest horse, wandered into a foreign land. There was commotion in the capital. His friend went in search of him and reached Mānasarovara. Hearing his friend being praised by a celestial chorister, he discovered his friendis whereabouts. In the meanwhile, Sanatkumāra had married many beautiful maidens. Hearing from his friend the distress of his parents, Sanatkumāra returned to Gajapura. His father relinquished the throne in his favor and took initiation. Due to his valor and victories, he was known as Cakravartī and finally he turned into an ascetic. This ordinary hero has been made to shine through the poetic beauty brought out by the author. The seasons have been described very well. (Dr. Jacobyis Article written in Roman Script, Germany)

(Jambuswāmi Cariu by Vīrakṛta and Sudansanacariu by Nayanandi are works of a very high order whose publication has taken place in the last decade.)

Other than the published works mentioned above, there are a lot of manuscripts written by hand in Apabhraṃś, which are safe in the various Jain Bhanḍāras. They are awaiting publication.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type Questons:

Describe the various works in Prakrit/Apabramsh.

Short answer type questions:

- 1. Explain in detail Paumacariya.
- 2. Based on the Pasanahachariya, explain the previous births of Bhagwan Parshwanath.

Multiple Choice Questions:

1.	The uthor of Shar (a) Haribhadra (nakumarasariu is [b] Srichandra		achandra (d) Pushpada	anth
2.	The author of Mahavirachariya is				
	(a) Vimalsıni	(b) Gunach:	indra omi	(c) linamanickya	— (d) Anantahame

3.	The number of (a) five	acts in Chanda (b) seven	pahachariu are (c) nin		d) eleven	
4.	Which original (a) Gynathadha		nachoodarayach: (b) Uttaradyay	arith indicate? van (c) Aakiyana	manikosh	(d) Aayaro
5.	Jambuchariya belongs to the period					
	(a) 12 th Vikram (c) 13 th Vikram			(b) 11 th Vikram (d) 5 Vikram sat		
6.	Kanayacharaiya	a has been writ	ten by			
7.	The epic that has highlighted the greatness of Shrutapanchami is					
8.	The epic that has highlighted the greatness of Shrutapanchami is The author of Bhavisayath Kaha is The works written by Muni Kanakamar is					
9.	The works written by Muni Kanakamar is					
10.	The author of P	auchasirichariu	ı is			<i>_</i>

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Compiler

Prof. Jagat Ram Bhattacharyya

LESSON 17

Section C : History of Jaina Literature JAINA POETIC AND NARRATIVE LITERATURE

The poetics is a sentiment (rasa) generating sentence. The poet composes his works through concentration and practice. The poetics involves, as far as possible, all elements laading to the overall welfare of life.

There are two kinds of poetics: (1) Visual and (2) Audible. The visual poetics is subject to the sense of hearing along with the sense of sight. In contrast, the audible poetics is subject to the sense of hearing only. The audible poetics has two varieties: (1) Prose and (2) Poetry. The poetry has two varieties: (1) connected composition ($Prabaridha~K\bar{a}vya$) and (2) stray or unconnected composition ($Muktaka~K\bar{a}vya$). The connected composition is a poetics in which the narrative sections are connected with each other. Jina sena has mentioned that a connected composition is a narrative composition in which the preceding and following relationship is maintained. The stray composition is said to be devoid of this relationship.

The connected compositions have two varieties: (1) Great poetics or epics (*Mahākāvya*) and (2) Narrative poetics (*Kathā-kāvya*). The epic presents the exhaustive picture of life. It is divided in chapters (*sargās*) and it is large in size also. Ācārya Jinasena has defined the epic, "The epic is that composition which depicts historical or legendary character sentimentally and illustrates the effects of religion, riches and desires (*Dharma*, *Artha and Kāma*)".

The narrative poetics is that in which the narrative is presented with thrilling elements in a sentimentalized and rheotorical style. It is composed in the form of verses (or metres). Hence, it is different from the connected narrative (\(\hat{A}khy\bar{a}yik\bar{a}\)) and narrative in prose (\(Cadya-kath\bar{a}\)). However, it is the same in essence. The narrative poetics has two varieties: (1) Complete (\(Sakga a\)) and (2) Fragmentary (\(Kharida\)). In the complete narrative, there is presentation of exhaustive picture of the character. However, it is free from chapterisation and prosody which makes it different from the epro. Thus, it is a different class of literature. Most of the character based poetics in the Jaina tradition belongs to this category. In contrast, the fragmentary narrative presents a single aspect or incident of the character.

The stray poetics has two varieties: (1) worth reading (Padya) and (2) worth singing (Geya). The author of Sāhitya Darpa, a (Mirror of Literature) - Viśvanātha has mentioned many kinds of stray poetics based on number verses: (1) one-verse composition (Muktaka) (2) two-verse composition (Sandānitaka) (3) three-verse composition (Viśeshaka) (4) four-verse composition (Kalapaka) (5) five or six-verse composition (Kulaka) (6) poetics describing only one subject like the spring season (Paryāya-baddha) (7) compendium of independent verses (Kośa) (8) compendium of stray poetics composed by a poet (Praghataka) (9) compendium of prosody poetics on a subject composed by a poet (Sanghāta) and (10) compendium of stray poetics composed by many poets (Vikirnaka).

We propose here to present the general introduction of the Jaina poetics. For convenience of our studies, we are classifying the whole Jaina poetics literature under the following groups:

- (1) Epics (Mahākāvya)
- (2) Fragmentary narratives (composed in meters, Kharida Kāvya, Giti Kāvya)

- (3) Eulogical literature (Stotra)
- (4) Prose-cum-poem-based literature (Champu)
- (5) Prose-literature (Gadya)
- (6) Dramas (Visual poetics, Driśya)

1.0 Varieties of Epic

Two varieties of epic have been admitted: (1) Intermixed or expansive epic (Sankalanātmaka) and (2) Rheotoric epic (Alankrita). The expansive epics are those poetics which have been enriched and developed by the scholars on the basis of their genius. Rāmāyana and Mahābhārata are the epics of this category. They have simplicity and naturality. The rhetoric epics are composed by a single poet and the external aspect (like arts of figure of speech) is emphasized there-in. They have been composed later than Rāmāyana etc. on the basis of their imitation. Hence, the rheotoric epics are also called 'Imitated epics''.

On the one hand, there are very few expansive epics in the Jaina tradition; on the other, there is abundance of rhetoric epics. With respect to style, they can be placed in three categories:

- (1) Scriptural (Śāstriya)
- (2) Historical (Aitihāsika)
- (3) Legendary (Paurāṇika)

The monks and scholars have mentioned the following five characteristics of the Jaina epics:

- (1) The whole story is divided in chapters with different names like Sarga, Āśvāsa, Paricheda, Ucchvāsa, Kānda, Parva, Prakāśa and Lambhaka etc. (all of them are virtually synonyms for chapter).
- (2) The structural technique of the subject to be described is generally as follows:
 - (a) Preliminary benedictory prologue (Mangalācaraṇa)
 - (b) Mention about the object and contents
 - (c) Conduct of good or bad people
 - (d) Self-diminution (Atma-Laghutā)
 - (e) Remembrance of early scholars with regards.
 - (f) Introduction of the poet and his teacher-tradition.
- (3) Scheme for Subsidiary narratives to describe the fruitions of karma and rebirth etc.
- (4) In most of the Jaina epics, the sentiment of peace is prominent. Of course, the other sentiments of erotism, heroism, marvelism and others are also there in a secondary way.
- (5) The object of the Jaina epics is to prominently present the effects of religiosity. However, there is discourses on the triad of religion, riches and desires but it is the acquirement of liberation which is accepted as the ultimate objective.

2.0 Brief Introduction of Jaina Epics

The Jaina poets have composed many forms of epics in Sańskna, Prākna and Apa-bhranśa languages. For the convenience of our study, our description will be based on the following three-fold classification (as above):

(a) Scriptural Epics: The epics written in sentimetralised and rhetoric style are called scriptural

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epics. The Jaina poets have not composed this category of literature in the *Prākrita* language. In *Sańskṛta* also, very few scriptural epics have been composed which are based mostly on imitation of the epics composed by *Bhāravī*, *Māgha* and *Bhaṭṭi*. Their language is like the other poetics such as 'Kirātārjuniyam' (Arjuna and Śiva in the form of Tribal) and 'Śiśupāla-vadha (Murder of Śiśupāla) etc. However, at some places, it has gone difficult to understand. The sentiments, figures of speech and metres have been given emphasis. Among the sentiments, there is prominence of erotism, heroism and pacification. Of course, other sentiments are also secondarily there. There is the laborious scheme of introducing variegated figure of speech (*Chitra-alankāra*) in many places. These epics contain quite a good amount of material related with the religion, politics and other varied subjects. Some epics of this category are given below:

(a) Pradyumna Carita (Biography of Pradyumna)

This epic is composed by Mahāsena Sūrī of tenth century- the disciple of Gunākarasena Muni- an alround scholar of (Lat) *Vargata-sangha*. Mahasena was respected by the Paramara King Munja. The chief minister of Sindhula or Sindhuraja- father of the king Bhoja- named Parpata was very much devoted to him. This is mentioned in the eulogy of the manuscript of this epic available in the Jaina library of Karanja (Maharastra). The period of Sindhurja is tenth century A.D. Thus, the period of Mahā ena could be taken as tenth or eleventh century A.D.

The epic of *Pradyumna Carita* is divided in 14 chapters (Cantos). The language of this poetic text is simple and sentimental. Many of the best metres and figures of speech have been utilized in the text. One more epic of this name is also available. Its author is Sakalakīrti Bhaṭṭāraka of fifteenth century A.D.

(b) Neminirvāna Mahākavya (Epic of the Liberation of Neminātha 22nd Ford-builder)

The author of this epic was probably *Vāgbhaṭa*- the son of Chhahada of Porwada lineage of *Ahichchhatrapura*. Most probably, he was a monk-scholar of *Digambara* sect of the Jainas, as one finds the description of 16 dreams in its second chapter as admitted by the *Digambaras*. (The *Śvetāmbarās* have a tradition of 14 dreams). This epic describes the biography of Neminātha- the 22nd ford-builder. The text is divided in 15 chapters. The language of this book is simple and sentimental. Many metres have been utilized in its composition.

The other noted epics in the category of scriptural epics are the following:

- (1) Candra-Prabha Carita: Ācārya Viranandī (11th Century A.D.).
- (2) Vardhamaana Carita: Mahakavi Asaga (988 AD).
- (3) Dharmasharma abhyudaya : HarisCandra (1200 A.D.)
- (4) Sanat Kumara Carita: Jinapāla Ganī (1205-1221 AD)
- Jayanta Vijaya: Abhayadeva Sūrī (11th Century AD).
- (6) Muni Suvrata Kavya: Arhat das (14th century AD).
- (7) *Šrenika Carita* (Other name *Dvi-āśraya* Mahakavya): Jinaprabha Sūrī (14th century) and others.

The modern period has also some compositions of scriptural epics. The epic named Jayodaya composed by child-celibate pandit Bhuramal Shastri (Late 108 Ācārya Jñārasāgarji) is noted among them. It was composed in 1937 AD. This is one of the best epic with respect to flow of sentiments, figures of speech and elegance etc.

The Jaina poets have also composed poetics on narratives other than the Jaina narratives. The noted poet Amaracandra Sūrī (1220-1247 A.D.) of Bayata *Gaccha* composed *'Bala-bharata'* epic based on the basic story of Mahabharata. This epic consists of 18 sections, each of which contains one or more chapters. The total number of chapters in forty four. He also composed *'Padmānanda Mahā Kāvya'* which has two

recensions: (1) The longer *Padmānanda kāvya* of 19 chapters and (2) the shorter *Jinendra carita* of 24 chapters with 1800 verses.

In Bala-bharta, the story runs with a natural and continuous flow. The poet has not attempted in it to present Jainism out of the way. Notwithstanding, he has presented the teachings of Bhisma on the duties of the king, duties during calamities or extreme distress and the religion of liberation as per *Mahābhārta* only. The language of this epic is varied, mature and candid. It has a natural flow. There is the beauty of rheotoric sweetness. There is virtually absence of discordant words. The liberalism, politeness and dignity reign throughout its style of language. The poet himself expressed 'Bala bhārata' as "the house of speech and 'a mansion of beauty and welfare created on the earth in the form of language."

No Jaina poet has composed any scriptural epic in *Prākrita* like Pravarasena or Vāk-pati-raja (Garudabaho, 8th century AD). However, the Jaina poets have composed epics in the form of *Šāstra*-poetics and multiple-meaning poetics in *Prākrita* and *Sariskrta*. The *Śāstra*-poetics are those where rules of grammar are also illustrated through the poetics (Grammatical scriptural poetics). The noted book of *Sariskrta-Bhatti Kāvya'* represents this category. The Jaina poets have also composed this types of poetics among which, the *Dvi-āśraya kāvya* of Ācārya Hemacandra is very popular. These types of compositions are called *'Dvi-āśraya'* (two-substratum) as they move on two planes simultaneously. The planes are (i) the plane of the story and (ii) the plane of grammar (rules).

Ācārya Hemacandra (11-12th century AD) composed this dvia shrave poetic to let the people understand the rules of grammer (of Siddha Hema *Vyākaraṇa* which is of *Sanskṛta* and *Prākrita*). The *Dvi-āśraya* poetic is divided in sections. The first part of this text illustrate the rules of *Sanskṛta* grammar mentioned in the first seven chapters of the *Siddha -Hema-Vyakarana*. This part is in *Sanskṛta*. In the second section, the rules of *Prākrita* grammar have been illustrated which are mentioned in the eight i.e. the last chapter of this grammer. There are twenty chapters in the first section while there are eight chapters in the second section. All the eight chapters of this section are composed in *Prākrita* language. This section is popularly known as 'Kumārapāla-carīta' in *Prākrita* literature.

The first section of *Dvi-āśraya* epic describes the topics beginning from (1) the origin of the *Cālukya* lineage in Anahilapura, (2) Coronation of Kumarapala, (3) March of conquest, (4) Declaration of non-killing, Construction of temples and other public welfare works. The topic of Kumārapāla has also been extended in the second *Prākrita* part. The songs of glory of Kumārapāla by the bards (and prisoners?), his daily routine, wanderings accordings to seasons, royal court and splendour of the kings have been described there in. The narrative ends with the contemplation of the king on the supreme objective (or god?) and teachings by the goddess Saras *Vāt*i. In the eight *Prākrita* chapters, the first six illustrate the grammatical rules of Maharashtri *Prākrita* with examples, the seventh deals with the same about *Śaurasenī* and the eighth chapter deals with rules and examples related with *Māgadhi*, *Paiśāci*, *Culikā Paiśāci* and *Apabhransha* languages.

There is another *Dvi-āśraya* epic available in *Prākrita* named as *Shri-cinha*. It is also structured to illustrate and exemplify the rules of *Prākrita* grammar. It is dated 13th century A.D. It is authored by *Kṛṣṇālilashuha* of Kerala. It has been composed in imitation of *Kumarapala-carita* of Hemacandra. However, the examples given in this book are not based on the *Prākrita* grammar of Hemacandra. They are based on *Prākrita Prakaśa* of *Vararuci*.

(b) Historical Epies

The Jaina poets have also composed historical epics like the other *Sariskna* poets. They include the poetics on kings born in noted lineages. In addition, they also include the narratives of noted saints, ministers and wealthy persons. The authors of these works used to be supported by the kings or rich men. That is why,

their works do not depict disliking topics about them like the defeat in a war. We find the date wise description of incidents as admissible by historians. Of course, the description about he lineage traditions, origin of the lineage and other things are based on legendary sources.

Vasanta-vilasa (Pastimes of the spring) is the main epic among the historical Jaina epics. It is authored by BalaCandra Sūrī. He was born in a Brāhmīn family. The name of his father was Dhara-Deva and that of the mother was Vidyut. Later, he got initiated by Haribhadra Sūrī of Candra Gachchha. It is admitted that he composed this epic between 1239-1277 A.D.

This epic has 14 cantos and 1021 verses. It describes the biography the noted minister Vastūpāla of Gujrat. The sentiment of heroism is prominent in this epic. We find expressions of the sentiment of wrathfulness in the descriptions of wars. We find beautiful form of the sentiment of erotism of union. Its language is simple, Iniversity Ladmi soft, natural and mature. There is proper use of good-sayings (Sukti) in the text.

Among the other historical Jaina epics, the following are quite noted:

(1) Kumarapala Bhupala Carita: Jaisingh Sūrī

(2) Hammira Mahākavya : Nayacandra Sūrī

(3) Vastu-pāla carita : Jinaharṣa Gaṇī

(4) Prabhāvaka Carita: Prabhā Candra and others.

(e) Legendary Epics

The Jaina legendary epics are those poetics which have been composed to depict the biographies of 63 torch bearers including 24 ford-builders. Such epics are religious by nature. They describe the subjects like knowledge about the self-soul, impermanence of the world, renunciation of sensuals, reflection on detachment and conduct of the householders etc. It is the reason that there is prominence of meditative sentiment than the story sentiment.

The historical epics could be placed under three categories for the convenience of our study:

- Legendary epics based on Rāmāyana (1)
- (2)Legendary epics based on Mahābhārata
- Legendary epics based on the biography of 63 torch-bearers. (3)

(c-1) Legendary Epics Related with Rāmāyaņa

Rāma is such a popular figure that the poets of almost all the traditions have composed poetics on him. The Jaina poets have also composed epics on Rāma in Sanskria, Prākrita, Apabhramsa and other languages. Some of them are mentioned here:

(a) Paum-cariya (Biography of Padma-Rāma)

This is the ancient epic composed in *Prākrita*. Its author was Vimala Sūrī of *Naila* lineage. He was the grand disciple of Rahu and disciple of Vijaya. His period of composition of this epic is taken as varying between first and third century AD. From the eulogistic descriptions of Mathurā, it appears, as per Chaterjee, he was a monk of that city.

The Paum-cariya describes the story of Rama. It contains (1) 18 chapters with the couplet totaling 8651 equivalent to 12000 verses of 32 letters each. The name of Rama is Padma here. The biography has been described in seven sections: (1) Location (2) Origin of the lineage (3) Movement to forest (4) Fights (5) Birth of Lava and Kuśa (6) Liberation and (7) Many pre-births. There are some differences in this story as compared with Balmiki Rāmāyana. For example, the following points are worth nothing:

- (1) Voluntary forest-dwelling.
- (2) Absence of golden deer.
- (3) Bhamandala as the brother of Sitā.
- (4) of Rāma and Hanumānaand others.

The language of this epic is simple and lovely. We find quite a good amount of material related with Jaina Philosophy in the epic.

(b) Padma Purāna

This epic is composed in *Sańskrta* by Ācārya Raviśena of seventh century A.D. (app. 676 AD). The epic has 123 chapters and 18023 32-letter verse-equivalents. It has structured the story like *Paumcariya*. Its language is lovely.

Besides these two legendary epics, there are some more noted epics in this category. They are as follows:

- (1) Jaina Rāmāyana (Sańskṛta Prose): Vijayadāna Sūrī (16th century, A.D.)
- (2) PadmaPurāņa (Sanskņta): Jinadās (16th century AD).
- (3) Padma Mahākāvya: Śubhavardhana Gaṇī (16th century AD).
- (4) Rāma Caritra: Padmanābha (16th Century AD).

There are many Rāma-based epics in *Apabhransha* language. Among them, 'Pauma-chariu' of Svayambhu of (ninth century) A.D. is noted. The biographical poetics (Carita Kāvyas) of Prākrita and Apabhransha will be described later, in detail under the head 'Carita Kāvyas'.

(C-2) Legendary Epics based on Mahābharāta

The Jaina poets have many epic compositions based on *Mahābharāta*. Among these epics, the following are very famous:

- (1) Harivansha Purāṇa: Jinasena of Punnata (783 AD).
- (2) Pāndava Carita: Devaprabha Sūrī of Maladhari Gachchha, (1153 AD), and others.

The text of *Harivariśa Purāņa* has been composed by many other authors. Among them, those composed by Bhaṭṭāraka Sakala-kirti (15th Century, A.D.), Bhaṭṭāraka Śrī-bhuṣaṇa (1618 AD) and others are quite known. The work named '*Pāndava Purāna*' is also found written by many authors like Bhaṭṭāraka Śubha-caṅdra (1551 AD), Bhaṭṭārita Vādicaṅdra (1594 AD) and the poet RāmCaṅdra (1503 AD).

(C-3) Legendary Epies Based on Biography of 63 Torch bearers

The Jaina monk-scholars have composed many epics based on the biography of 63 torch bearers. Among them, *Mahāpurāna* of Jinasena and Guṇabhadra (898 AD) is a great epic composed in *Sariskṛta*. It is divided in 76 chapters (*Parvas*). Its size is 19207 32-letter verse-equivalent. The first forty two chapters were composed by Jinasena-I and the rest 34 chapters were written by his disciple *Guṇabhadra*. The first part (by Jinasena-I) is called 'Ādi-purāna' (The Legendary of the First) which describes the biography of Bhagavān R ṣabhadeva. The remaining portion is called '*Uttara Purāna*' (Legendary of the Later) which describes biographies of 23 ford-builders i.e. Cakravarti wheel-turner monarchs (beginning from the second monarch Sagara), the first Bharata being included in Ādi-purāṇa), nine Baladevas, 9 Narayanas and 9 anti-Narayanas. Both the above sections of these Puranas, when combined, are called '*Mahāpuraṇa*'. Besides this *Mahāpuraṇa*, there is one more such epic composed by Mallishena (1047 AD) is also there. Pt. Āśādhara also composed an

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epic named 'Triṣaṣṭhi-smriti-Śāstra' and Bhaṭṭāraka Sakala-kīrti' also authored 'Ādi-purāṇa' and 'Uttara-purāṇa' etc. Śeelācārya- the disciple of Mandeva Sūrī composed 'Cauppana Mahāpuriṣa-cariyu' (Bio-graphy of Fifty-four Great Men) in Prākrita (868 AD) which is also quite famous. There is a large number of independent legendary epics dealing with the biography of individual members of the category of 63 torch-bearers. Among the Prākrita compositions of this category of epics, there is 'Ādinātha Cariya' of Vardhamānaācārya, 'Sumaināha Cariya' of Somaprabha Ācārya, Paum-pabha-cariya of Deva-suri, Seyansa Cariya of Haribhadra disciple of JinaDeva, (1115 AD), 'Ananta-naha cariya' of Nemicandra Sūrī (19th century AD) and 'Mahāvīra Cariya' of Devendra Sūrī (earlier name Guna Caridra Sūrī, 1075 AD). We find many epics in Sariskṛta also in this category.

3.0 Stray Compositions of Poetics (Giti-kāvyas)

The stray poetics are those poetics in which the sentimentalized dispositions are expressed. They depict only one aspect of life or a vitally sensitive incident. That is why, they are called stray or sectioned poetics. Ācārya Viśvanātha has defined this category of poetics by stating that the stray poetics follows a country or aspect of life. There is prominence of the expression of sentiments and they are worth singing. The modern reviewers have mentioned the following main characteristics of sectioned poetics:

(1) Prominence of inner modes.

(3) Indifference.

(5) Intensity of attachment experiences.

(7) Clarity like pictures.

(9) Insight depth

(11) Natural Expression.

(2) Symphonicity.

(4) Sentimentalisation.

(6) Density of dispositions.

(8) Concentrated effect

(10) Brevity ...

(12) Natural inner urge.

There are two kinds of stray poetics:

(1) Connected stray poetics (Prabandhātmka).

(2) Unconnected stray poetics (Muktaka).

The connected stray poetics are the mescenger compositions like Meghaduta (Clouds as Messengers) or those written in their imitation. The unconnected stray poetics are devoid of connectablity. These poetics have two varieties: (1) sentiment-based and (2) non-sentiment-based. In the first category, we have $P\bar{a}r\acute{s}vabhyudaya$ (Prosperity of $P\bar{a}r\acute{s}va$) and other poetical works. The various kinds of hymns and eulogies and centuriads ($Satak\bar{a}s$) etc. belong to the second category of unconnected stray poetics.

(a) Sentiment-based Stray Poenes (Messenger or Message-based Poetics)

All the messenger poetics of the Jainas are composed in *Sariskṛta*. There is none in the *Prākrita* language. There is prominence of the sentiment of pacification in place of the sentiment of erotism of separation. Among these poetical works, the following are the main ones:

- (1) Nemi-duta: Poet Vikrama-son of Sogan (13th century)
- (2) Jaina Megha-dūta: Merutunga Ācārya (1346-1416 A.D.)
- (3) Shila-Duta: Charitra-Sundar Ganī (1427 A.D.)
- (4) Pawan-Duta: Bhattārka Vādicandra (17th century A.D.) and others.

All these messenger stray poetics are influenced by Meghaduta and are composed in Mandakranta metre (having 17 letters per quarter in a specific order).

(b) Non-Sentiment-based Stray Poetics:

The eulogical and centuriad literature is mainly placed under this category. Eulogical Literature: In

Jain tradition many Eulogical literture have been written. The chapter ninth of the first part of $\bar{A}c\bar{a}r\bar{a}riga$ (Book on Monastic Conduct) named as *Upadhāna śruta* (Excellence of Righteousness) and *Mahāvīra Stuti* (Eulogy of Mahāvīra) of Sūtrakritanga (Book on Tenets) are the ancient forms of Jaina Eulogy. The chapter on the Excellence of Righteousness has depicted the heroic character of Bhagvan Mahāvīra. In Mahāvīra Stuti, the various qualities of Mahāvīra have been presented through various meaningful adjectives and names. The hymns like Titthayara-suddhi and Siddha-bhakti etc. of Kundakundācharya are also admitted as quite ancient. The Uvasaggahara Stotra (Eulogy of Remover of Calamities) of Bhadrabāhu is very famous despite its size of five *Prākrita* verses only. There are many commentaries available on it. The other eulogies composed in Prākrita language are:

- (1) Ajiya-śānti-thaya: Nandīsena
- (2) Rsabha Pancaśikā and Vira-tthui: Dhanapāla
- (3) Eulogical literature of Devendra Sūrī
- (4) Isi-mandala-thotta: Dharmaghosha Sürī
- (5) Jaya-tihuvana-thotta : Abhayadeva Sūrī

The Jaina poets have composed many of the best enlogies in Sanskna which are varied with respect to style, metres, figures of speech and other points. The eulogies have been composed in the following styles:

- (1) Style of paronomasias (Śleśa)

speech.

(1) Style of filling out a line (*Pādpūrti*).

(5) Style of filling up what is incomplete (*Samasyā pūrti*).

The eulogies like '*Yuktyānuśāsana*' (Disciplina "
Jina-centuriad) and $Dv\bar{a}$ The eulogies like *'Yuktyānuśāsana'* (Discipline of Logic) and *Jina- ṣaṭaka-alaṅkāra* (Ornamentation through Jina-centuriad) and Dvā-trinshikās (Thirty two's) composed by Hemacandra and Siddhasena depict the logical style to elaborate the philosophical doctrine s.

The main eulogies composed in the style of figures of speech and paronomasias are :

- (1) Sarva-Jinapati-stuti of 29 verses by the great and a learned blind poet Śripāla.
- (2) Dvā-Trinśikās of Rāmacandra Sūrī
- (3) Chatur-haravali Chitrastava of Jayatilaka Sūrī and others.

A good number of eulogies representing the style of filling up the line or completing the incomplete have also been composed. Many poets have utilized their wisdom in completing the incomplete related with the Bhakatāmara-stotra: (Enlogy of Immortalising the Devotee). The following eulogies are also very famous:

- (1) Rsabha-bhaktā nora : Samaya-sundara.
- (2) Śānti-Bhaktāmara: Laxmi-Vimala
- (3) Vīra-bhahā nara : Dharama-vardhana

Among the purely devotional eulogies, the following are noteworthy:

- Twelve Devotional Hymns like Siddhabhakti etc.: Pujyapāda (6th Centruy AD).
- (2) Siddha-priya stotra
- Kalyāna mandira stotra
- (4) Bhaktāmara Stotra
- (5) Sarasvati stotra, šānti stotra, Chaturvinšati Jina-stuti, Virastava or Vishāpaharabappabhatti
- (6) Vishahara Stotra: Dhanajaya
- (7) Jina-Sahasra-nama: Jinasena
- (8) Sri-pura-parhvanātha stotra: Vidyānanda and others.

4.0 Prose-cum-poem based Literature (Campukāvya)

The campu-kāvyas are those which are composed in a mixed style of prose and poetry. The Jaina poets have sufficiently enriched this form of literature. Yaśas tilaka Campu of Somadeva Sūrī (959 AD) is noted in this category. It is divided in eight chapters (Ashvasas) dealing with the biography of the King Maridatta who was engaged in violence. Under the influence of Vir-vaibhava tantrikā, the pair of novice Jaina monk Abhayaruchi and junior nun Abhayamati (both were son and daughter of his sister) are brought to be sacrificed before the Candmari goddess. However, the king is influenced by the monk and nun through their teachings and accepts Jainism. The later chapters (6-8) describe beautifully the conduct of the house holders.

Jīvandhara Champu is also very famous. It is composed by Haricandra- the great poet and the author of the epic of Dharma-śarma-abhyudaya (12th century AD). The story is divided in eleven chapters describing the biography of Jīvandhara. The language is superb. The figures of speech have been structure i beautifully. The Purudeva Campu of the poet Arhat-dasa of fourteenth century A.D. deals with the biography of the first ford-builder-Ādinath. Similarly, the Champu-mandana a Campu composed in ten chapters is also an important champu. It deals with the story of Draupādi and Pandavas. Among the other Campus, Nala-damayanti Campu of Jayashekhara Sūrī is also popular.

5.0 Prose or Prosified Compositions

The *Sariskṛta* scholars have defined the prose composition as a composition devoid of metres. According to Vishvanātha, the prose is a scheme of words and meanings free from the bondage of metres. According to Dandi, the prose is defined as a composition with non-fixed quarters (as in metres) and absence of series of specific words (*garas*) and signs of short vowels in a collection of syllables.

The composition of prose is difficult. It is why, we have small number of such compositions. Writing a prosified composition has been admitted as a test of the authors as Vaman Says.

Beginning with the 6th century A.D., we find the refined form of Sankrita prose in Visavadatta of Subandhu, *Kādambari* and *Harṣa- carita* of BānaBhaṭṭa and *Daśa-Kumāra-carita* of Dandi.

Among the prosified compositions of Jaina scholars, the two-'Tilaka-manjari' of Dhanapāla and 'Gadya-ciritāmaṇi' of Vādibha-sinha are famous.

5.1 Tilakamañjari

This is a connective narrative in prose. It has been named after its heroine. This prosified poetic deals with the story of Harivahana and Tüaka-manjari as also the story of Samaraketu and Malaya-sundari. This work is influenced by Kādambari of BāṇaBhaṭṭa. It is authored by Dhanapala- the great poet. His father was Sarvadeva and his grandfather was Devarṣi. Basically, he was a Brāhmīn from Madhyapradesh. Later, he resided at Ujjaini. His period is admitted as the last quarter of tenth century A.D. His other works are:

- (1) Paiya-lachchhi-nama-mala
- (2) Rsal ha-Panchashika
- (3) Vira-thui

5.2 Gadya-ciátāmaņi(Fabulous Gem of Prose)

This prose composition is divided in 11 chapters (Lambhas). This poetic has described the worldly life of Jīvandhara in the style of tuff *Sańskna* and full of figures of speech. Its author is Vādibhasimha- the author of *Chhatra-chudamani* (Crest-jewel of Royal Authority). His period is admitted as eleventh century A.D.

6.0 Visual Poetics

The poetic which is the subject of only the sense of hearing is called the audible poetic. In contrast, a

poetic which can be enjoyed both-by the sense of hearing and the sense of sight is called a visual poetic. We have discussed the different varieties of audible poetics like the epics, sectioned poetics, worth-to-be sung poetics, prose-cum-poemised poetics, eulogical poetics and others. Now, we will describe the visual poetics. This is generally called as drama. Its earlier form is found in Rigveda. Some dialogues of Rgveda like Sarmapani, Yama-Yami, Viśvāmitra-Nandī and others are the ancient forms of drama. This form was extensively expanded during the period of Rāmāyana and Mahābhārata. There is mention of stage, actor-cum-dancer (Naṭa) and drama in Rāmāyana. In the Ashtadhyayi of Panini, there is also the mention of dancing (Nāṭya) and actor-cum-dancer. In Patanjala Mahabhāṣya, there is a clear mention of two dramas - Kanśa-vadha and Bāli-vadha. The earlier Jaina literature mentions drama in many places. We find the terminology related with drama in Raya-paseniya-sutta. We are mentioning here the main Jaina dramas out of the available ones according to their subjects:

(a) Legendary Dramas

- (1) Nala-vilasa, Raghu-vilasa etc.: RāmCandra Kavi (1171-73 AD)
- (2) Maithili-kalyana, Vikranta-kaurava, Subhadrā Harana, Anjana-Pavananjaya : Hastimalla (13th century A.D.)

(b) Historical Dramas

- (1) Candralekhā-Vijaya-prakarana: DevaCandra (disciple of Hemacandra, 12th century A.D.)
- (2) Hammiramada-mardana: Jaisinha Sūrī (13th century A.D.)
- (3) Rambhā-manjari : Naicandra Sūrī (15th century, A.D.) and others

(e) Symbolic Dramas

- (1) Moharāja-Parājaya
- (2) Jñāna-Suryodaya etc.

(d) Fiction-based Dramas

- (1) Mallika-Makaranda: RamCandra (1171-73 AD)
- (2) Kaumudi Mitranandā and others.

Thus, the Jaina poets have sufficiently enriched the different branches of poetic literature. They glittered their goddess of learning. This is the reason, why we get thousands of published and unpublished poetic works written by the Jaina poets.

OUESTIONS

A. Essay-type Questions

1. Describe Jaina epics and illustrate the main themes found in them.

B. Short answer Questions

- Describe briefly about grammatical scriptural poetics.
- Describe briefly about the stray or unconnected poetics.

C. Objective Questions

- 1. How many varieties of poetics are there?
- How many varieties of connected poetics are there?
- 3. The author of *Pradyumna Carita* is?

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- 4. The author of Dvi-āśraya Kāvya is
- 5. On which narrative, Pauma-cariya is based?.....
- Who is the author of Padma-Purāna? 6.
- 7. Which are the books authored by Jinasena?
- Who has composed 'Rsabha Panchashika? 8.
- 9. Which is poetic work composed in a mixed style of prose and poem?
- Gadya-chintamani describes the biography of 10.

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LESSON 18

Section C : History of Jaina Literature YOGA LITERATURE

The Jaina scholars generally face the problem whether *Yoga* is accepted in Jaina tradition. Is there any book like '*Yoga Darśana*' in this tradition? Both these problems require consideration with historical perspective.

There were three main religious traditions in India - *Vedic*, Jaina and *Bauddha*. There were some more secondary traditions. They had their own system of spiritual practices. All the religions had names of their system with specific names. The eight-fold *Yoga* system is the *sarkhyān* system of spiritual practices. The name of Jaina system of spiritual practices is the path of Liberation (*Mukti Mārga*). It has three components: (i) Right faith (ii) Right knowledge and (iii) Right conduct.

In comprison with the Yoga system of Patanjalī, this tratna - Gem-trio could be called as Jaina Yoga. It is clear that the spiritual practices in Jainism do not have all the components of the eight-fold yoga of Patanjalī. There is no clear admission of Breath-control (Prāṇāyama) Retention (Dharma) and Trance (Samādhi). Also, there is no regular description of Yama (Life-long vows), Niyama (Time-bound vows), Postures (Āsanās), Pratyāhāra (Turning back) and Dhyāna (Meditation) in Jainism as found in Yoga philosophy. The system of spiritual practice of Jainism is an independent one and, therefore, its organisation is also different. The 28th chapter of Uttarādhyayana describes the path of liberation in brief but systematically. The 29th, 30th and 32th chapters of this book also contain the directions regarding the Jaina path of salvation. This text is a later canon among the Jain scriptural texts. The first section of Ācārānga (Book on Monastic Conduct) is the most important. It contains a highly vital and fine details about the spiritual practices of the Jainās. Sūtrakṛtānga (Book of Doctrires), Bhagawatī (Enunciation of Explanation) and Sthānānga (Book on Numerated Stationing) also contain description about introspective reflection (Bhāvanās), postures (Āsanās) and meditation etc. but in stray manner. The Aupapātika (Book on Birth) has a systematic description about the yoga of austerities. This yoga is only a form of right conduct.

The canonical literature contains seeds of the elements of spiritual practices. However, they do not have the description and processes in detail. How they are not there? It is still a question mark. Bhadrabāhu Svāmī undertook practices of a twelve-year meditation named ' $Mah\bar{a}pr\bar{a}na$ ' (Great vitality). We also find mention of meditation named ' $Sarva-sarivara\ Yoga$ ' (Yoga on Total Stoppage or restraint) undertaken by many $\bar{A}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}s$. The nature of the spiritual practices is available but we do not have the process to undertake them.

Ācārya Kundakunda (I^a century AD) has opened a new field of spiritual practices in Jaina tradition by composing books like *Samaya-sāra* (Essence of Soul), *Pravacana-sāra* (Essence of Teachings) and many others. However, the credit for the description of the path of liberation with proper perspective in a single text goes only to Ācārya Umāsvāti (2-3rd century AD). His text of *Tattvārth Sūtra* (Formulae on Reals) or *Mokṣa Śāstra* (Book on Liberation) is a link between the canonical and later literature. The text has described all the components of the path of liberation in detail.

We find the details of the processes of spiritual practices in the *Niryukti* literature. The complete details of the process are found in the chapter on *Kāyotsarga* (Relaxation) of *Āvaśyaka-Niryukti*. It is composed by Bhadrabāhu-II who belongs to the fourth-fifth century of *Vikarma* era, V.S. (=AD +57 yrs).

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The second stage of mental concentration is meditation. Its detailed description is found in Dhyāna Sajaka (Centuriad on Meditation) by Jinabhadra Ganī of sixth century AD. Both these texts are not related with yoga philosophy or Hatha-yoga. They represent the independents thoughts of Jaina tradition.

The book of *'Samādhi Taritra'* (System of Trance) of Pujyapāda Deva*naridi* (4-5th century AD) is an inexhaustible source of spiritual experiences. His 'Istopadeśa' (Sermon of the Chosen) has also described deeper experiences in this regard. The reader of this book cannot remain unalienated spiritually. Pūjyapāda is the first source of the tradition of Yogic experiences. However, one finds the incidental description of relaxation, meditation and postures etc. in texts like Vrhat-kalpa-bhāṣya (Commentary on Great Permissible), Vyavahāra Bhāsya (Commentary on Practices), Mulārādhanā (Basic Services/Practices) or Bhagavatī Ārādhanā, (Services of the Venerable) and others. The commentaries of Tattvārtha Sūtra like Ślokavārtika (Versed Explanatory) and autocommentary-based commentary have also discussed this subject in some details.

A new chapter of a new kind of spiritualism in Jaina yoga system starts during the seventh-eighth century AD. The leader of this step is Haribhadra Sūri. He coordinated the yoga systems and their definitions with the Jaina system and gave a new direction to it. His main compositions are: Yoga-Birdu (Drop of Yoga), Yoga-drsti-samucchaya (Compendium of Yogic Views), Yoga-Śaţaka (Centuriad of yoga) and Yoga-vinsikā (Two Decads of Yoga).

The classification of yogic system by Haribhadra Sūri is not available in the earlier Jaina literature. He has not borrowed it from other yogic texts also. He planned his classification through the combined influence of Jaina and Yoga systems. According to him, Yoga has five varieties.

Spirituality.

(3) Meditation.

(2) Introspective Reflection.(4) Equanimity and(5) Destruction of mental propensities.

Ācārya Jinasena has described the yogic practices in a stray manner in his Mahāpurāṇa (Great Legendary) of ninth century. Ācārya Rāmsena composed his 'Tattavānuśāsana' (Discipline of the Soul-Tattva) and Ācārya Šubhacandra composed his 'Jñānarṇava' (The Ocean of Knowledge) in the eleventh century. Both these texts have newer areas of yoga. During this century, the Jaina yoga seems to be largely influenced by eight-fold yoga system, Hatha yoga and mystical system (Tantra Śāstra). In the canonical age, there was only the virtuous meditation or meditation on the reality (Dharmya or Dharma Dhyana). This got classified into four forms during this period.

(1) Meditation on object (Pvidastha)

(2) Meditation on Syllables (Padastha).

(3) Meditation on Form (Eüpastha).

(4) Meditation on Devoid-of Form (Rūpātita).

It seems that this classification is influenced by the mystical system. In the Nava-cakreśvara Tantra (Mysticism on the Supreme of Nine Centers), the individual has been called as a Guru (teacher) who knows the object, syllables form and the devoid-of-form. According to Guru Gītā (Songs on Teachers), the term 'Piṇḍa' means (Kundalini Power' (Power stored in spiral centers of Ganglion), the 'Pada' means 'Sivan' (Harisa), the term 'rūpa' means 'drop' and the term 'rūpātīta' means, 'unstained' (Niranjana). In contrast, the Jaina $Ac\bar{a}r_{\nu}\bar{a}$'s accepted the above four-fold classification of virtuous meditation, but they defined them according to their own theory. In the Caitya-varidana-bhāṣya, (Commentary on Temple-veneration), only three forms object-based, syllable-based and devoid-of-form based have been accepted and the 'form-based' category has been omitted. The meaning of these terms is also different from the other texts. According to the commentator, there are three objects of meditation: (i) non-omniscient (ii) omniscient and (iii) the liberated ones. The meditation based on these three are called above three kinds of virtuous meditation. At that time, the people got quite familiar with these varieties of meditation. Hence, it seems that their adoption in Jaina yoga system became unavoidable for the Jaina scholars.

In this same century (11th), Somadeva Sūrī also produced some material on Meditation. His book named 'Yoga-sāra' (Essence of Yoga) is quite vital on the subject. He has discussed the subject of yoga in a praiseworthy way in the 39th and 40th chapters of his 'Yaśastilaka Carinpu' (Poem-cum-Prosaic poetic on the Topmost of the Glorified). In the texts of this century, we also find the adoption of the four kinds of conceptionearthy, watery, airy, firy and 'that-which-based one'. However, Tattvānuśāsana mentions only three of them.

In the twelveth century, Hemacańdra Ācārya composed his 'Yoga-Śāstra' (Text on Yoga). He described the concept of unity between the yoga-system and Jaina Gem-traid. In his text, Hemacańdra has also described the mutated system of yoga. On the basis of his own experiences, he has presented the four forms of mind: (i) Distracted (Viksipta) (2) Transported (Yātāyāta) (3) Mixed (Ślista) and (4) Absorbed (Sulīna).

In the thirteenth century, we have the book of 'Adhyātma Rahasya' (Secrets of Spiritualism) by Āśādhara. The author has presented the secrets of spirituality in a systematic way in this book. There is one more composition named 'Adhyātma Kalpadruma' (Wish-fulling Tree of Spirituality) by Sundar Sūrī of fifteenth century. Its style is more of a didactic nature and less of a procedural type.

In eighteenth century, Ācārya Vinaya Vijayajī composed his second text of Reflective *Yoga* named as 'Śārita Sudhā-rasa' (Flavour of the Nectar of Peace). In the same century, Upādhyāya Yaśovijayajī continued the yoga-river to flow forcefully. We have many books on yoga composed by him:

- (1) Adhyātmopa-niṣad (Proximity of the Spirit). (2) Adhyātma-Sāra (The Essence of Spiritualism).
- (3) Yogāvatāra (Descent of Yoga).
- (4) Dvā-trinšikā (Two joint with thirty).

He wrote a commentary on Yoga-viniśikā (Di-decad on Yoga) of Haribhadra. There is a short commentary on Patanjala Yoga-Sūtra authored by him where a comparative study of both the systems has been presented.

Ācāryaśrī 'Tulasijī' wrote a book named 'Mano-nuśāsanam' (Disciplining of Mind). It has presented the Jaina yoga in a new style. There are two small books published in Namaskār Svādhyāya (Studies on Bowings-Litany). They present a new dimension in the area of Jaina yoga. In 'Pāsanāha-cariya' (Biography of PārśavaNātha), there is a beautiful composition on Dhyana (meditation) in 21 verses. Similarly, there are many books containing material related with meditation:

- (1) Jñāna Sāra (Essence of Kno vledge).
- (2) Vidyānuśāsana (Disciplines on Learnings).
- (3) Vairāgyamani śāstra (Text on the Jewel of Detachment).
- (4) Kārtikeyanupraksā (Introspective Reflection of Kartikeya), and others.

On studying the Jaina canons, every body will realize that there is a large amount of material related with meditation in them. This material is not getting evaluated properly due to memorical loss and lack of practices. The first section of the text of ' $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ro$ ' (Book on Monastic Conduct) is sufficient for guiding in the spiritual practices. The elements of meditation based on internal reflection and insight ($Prek \bar{s}\bar{a}$ and $Vipa \bar{s} y a n \bar{a}$) have been described very well there. In Appendix-2, there is a collection of some aphorisms of $\bar{A}y\bar{a}ro$. One can understand this reality by reading them. In this book, the ancient form of Jaina Yoga (Path of liberation or karmic stoppage) has been presented in reference to some new questions.

Is there any place of psychic centers in the Jaina Yoga? Is there any discussion regarding the Kundalini Yoga? These questions are asked many times and they have always been non-responded with reference to the Jaina yoga. An attempt has been made to seek responses to these questions.

This country of ours is accepted as the birthplace of spiritualism. There have been Lord R sabhadeva-

the first ford-builder in this devolution cycle of time. The *Vaiṣnavities* and *Śaivites* also admit him as a great man or reincarnation in their own way. Some people call him as *Avadhūta* (Advanced ascetic). If we look at him from this point, he is not only an yogi but he is the king of yogis. It is admitted that the yogic path has been enforced by him only. It is due to this fact that a large amount of yoga literature has been composed. However, it is not available to us in full. Most of it is present only nominally.

(1) Yoga in Jaina Scriptures

The main subject matter of the canons is the liberation (from the cycle of birth and death). This is in the form of acquirement or realization of the nature of soul which is different from the embodied living being. The austerities are the major means of attaining liberation. The austerities include the postures involving physical mortification, relaxation ($K\bar{a}yotsarga$), self-study, and meditation. Besides practices of austerity, the practices of five major vows (of non-violence, truth, honesty, celibacy and limitation of possessions) and their reflections, three guards and five carefulnesses (Samitis) etc. are also prescribed. The meditation has an important place with reference to yogic practices as the liberation is impossible without it. We find detailed description about meditation in the Jaina canons.

(2) Yoga in *Ācārāṅaga*

Many important guides for the practices of Yoga and meditation are available in $\bar{A}c\bar{a}r\bar{a}raga$ $S\bar{u}tra$.

- (1) Philosophy of the Observer (*Dṛṣṭa*): The chapter 3.85 of section of *Ayāro* tells us that the yoga and meditation is the philosophy of a non-violent and non-obscured observer.
- (2) Development of Non-attachment: Ācārāriaga 2.118 has stated that the person having insight into spiritualism should not consume things with attachment. He should utilize them otherwise.
- (3) Practice of Vigilance or Carefulness: The patient man should never be non-vigilant even for a *muhūrta* (or moment).

The person should not be (Ach. 2.11) careless on getting up. (Ach. 5.33).

The non-vigilant person has fear from all sides. The vigilant person has no fear from any side. (Ach. 3.75).

One should introspect on the soul only. (Ach. 3.4)

Bhagavān Mahāvīra undertook meditation under the state of trance with steadiness, concentration and vigilance

- (4) Inner Journey (Ach. 9.24.): The (spiritually) brave men are inclined towards the great path. The 'great path' also means the awakening of *Kuṇḍalini* centre'.
- (5) Introspection on Breathing (Aph. 1.37): The aspirant, who controls and pacifies the breathing, accepts the true religion and realizes the spiritually beneficial.
- (6) Effect of Introspection on Breathing (Ach. 3.37): The aspirant, who controls and pacifies the breathing, does not get perturbed from sufferings.
- (7) Introspection of the Body (Ach. 3.69): We get mention of the fact that Bhagvān Mahāvīra undertook practices of introspection of body.

A person is always non-vigilant who thinks, "This is the present moment of the body."

(8) Process (Ach. 5.21): "You introspect the body"

- (9) Intuition of Trembling: "You see, the body is trembling alround from the passion of anger".
- (10) Introspection of the inner body through the body: The individual observes the secretions of body through introspection of the inside of this impure body. He also observes the various origins of these flowing secretions in the body. (Ach. 2.130).
 - (11). Observation of origins of secretions of the body. : "You see that
 - (1) There are secretions in the upper parts.
 - (2) There are secretions in the lower parts.
 - (3) There are secretions in the middle parts.

These have been called the origins of secretions. The human beings get attached through them." (Ach. 5.118).

- (12) Effect of Vigilance: The dissolution or destruction of karmic bondage due to non-vigilance occurs through vigilance. (Ach. 5.74).
- (13) Knowledge of the body or the Universe: The person with restrained sight is an observer of the body (or the universe or loka, The word 'loka' has a sense of body here). He knows the lower part of the body, he knows the upper part of the body. (Ach. 2.125)
- (14). Introspection of the Center of Consciousness (*Saudhior Caitanya Kendra*): The man should release himself from attachment with desires after knowing the internal center of consciousness of the man who is of the nature of death. (Ach. 2.127).
- (15) Introspection on *Sandhi* (Centre of Consciousness): A person, who is detached from violence, undertakes the practice of non-violence, and he realizes, "He has observed the center of consciousness". (*Sandhi*). (Ach 5.20).

The term 'Sandhi' means a medium in the body causing the effort of vigilance which is called the center of consciousness. The houseless ascetic, who is noble, noble in wisdom, observer of nobility and engaged in restraint, has known that the body is a hole (of darkness). (Ach. 2.106).

- (16) Effect of observing the center of consciousness: I say, "A person who observes the karmic hole, who is absorbed in a single entity (soul), who is free from delusion and who is abstained from violence, is not subject to the path (for misenes). (Ach. 5.30).
- (17) Meditation on Aureole (*Leśyā*): The monk should abstain from the inauspicious (three) aureoles and acquire the auspicious aureoles. (Ach. 6.106)
- (18) Introspective Reflections (*Bhāvanās*): A person, who wins over the greed through the rival introspective reflections of contentment or non-greed, does not indulge himself to enjoy the desired objects. He gets free from the passion of greed. (Ach. 2.36)
- (1) Latrospection on impermanence (Anitya): You look at the body. It will be left out earlier or later. It has the nature of deterioration and destruction. It is uncertain, non-eternal and non-timed. It has accumulation and reduction (through metabolism). It has various states. (Ach. 5.29)

There is no moment of time which is not the opportunity for death to occur. The death can occur any moment. (Ach. 2.62).

The life-span is passing out and the youth is also moving away. (Ach 2.12)

- (2) Introspection on Refugelessness: The family and relatives are not capable of offering protection or refuge to you (from death) and you are also not capable of offering or giving protection to them. (Ach. 2.8)
- (3) Introspection of the Cycle of Birth and Death. (*Saásāra*): The living being undergoes the cycle of Birth and Death due to delusion (Ach. 5.7)
- (4) Introspection on Solitariness: (a) The man should renounce all attachment and possessions and, then, reflect upon the point, "Nobody belongs to me, and, hence, I am solitary." (Ach. 6.38)
- (b) The monk should think, "Iam alone, nobody belongs to me", and, then feel himself alone in this world (Ach. 8.97).
- (5) Introspection on Impurity (Asuci): The man observes the inside of the body through his inner sight of the impure body. He also observes the different origins of the secretion in the body. (Ach. 2.130)
- (19) Process (of spiritual growth): The spiritual practitioner should engage his sight on the objective, absorb himself in the objective, make the objective as his main plank and he should always be vigilant and mentally engaged in the objective. (Ach. 5.110)
- (20) Introspection on the Present Moment: "O Aspirant, you know about the present moment." (Ach. 2.24).
- (21) Effect (of Introspections): The spiritualist (*Tathāgata*) does not lean into the past and future. The great saint should be devoid of imagination and he should be introspecting about the present. Under this state, he whithers away his absorbed karmic body. (Ach. 3.60).
- (22) Postures (\bar{Asana}): Bhagavān Mahāvīra undertook the meditation in postures like sitting on hams (Utkatu or Cock-posture) etc. and with ste $\bar{A}di$ ness of body (and mind). (Ach. 9.4.14).

(23) Process:

- (a) Observation of the activities of body, speech and mind after pacifying them.
- (b) One who moves out for initiation after renouncing the sensual objects, becomes a great aspirant. He becomes free from action and knows and perceives (properly).
 - (24) Effect (of Non-active state): Release from the Cycle of Suffering.
 - (i) (a)A man with anger is the man with suffering. (Ach. 3.83).
- (b) The intelligent a spirant should destroy the anger, pride, greed, attachment, aversion Ö., and suffering. (Ach. 3.84).
 - (ii) Release from Primary and Secondary Possessions (Upadhi).
 - "Does the (spiritual) observer has any possessions?
 - (iii) No, he does have none'
- (25) Absorbance in the Soul (Ach 3.87): Whosoever observes the non-different one (or the self), gets absorbed in the non-different one and whosover is absorbed in the non-different one, observes the non-different one. (Ach 2.173).
- (26) Release from the Sins: (a) A person knowing the supreme-object realizes the terror in violence and does not incur sins. (Ach 3.33).
 - (b) An equanimous person does not incur sins. (Ach 3.28).

- (27) Dissolution of Karmic Bondage: The karmic bondage incurred due to non-vigilance is dissolved through vigilance. (Ach. 5.74).
- (3) Yoga in Sūtrakṛtāṅga: The terms like Adhyātma-yoga (Yoga of spiritualism), samādhi yoga (yoga of trance), Dhyāna yoga (Yoga of meditation) and Bhāvanā yoga (yoga of introspection) are used in Sūtrakrtāṅga. For example:

A person, who is purified through the yoga of Introspection, has been stated to be like a boat in the water which crosses the river. In the same way, the person is released from all the sufferings. (Su. 1.15.5)

- (1) Fine Inhaling and Exhaling (Śvāsa-praśvāsa): The monk should wander with non-attachment, controlled and pacified breathing, desire of religiosity, heroism in the austerities, pacified senses and well-restraint. The practices for self-beneficence are very rare.
- (2) Enlightenment through the (spiritual) Observer: O spiritual observer, your vision is obstructed through your delusion. You are not able to see the truth. Hence, you should believe in what is being taught by the higher observer. The basis of introspective reflections is the enlightenment tendered by the observer. (Sū. 1.2.52).
- (3) Introspection on Separateness (Anyatva): The desires and enjoyments are separate from me, and I am different from them. The entities are different from me and I am different from them. (Sū 1.2.65).
 - (4) Knowledge of the Present Moment (Sū. 2.2.34)
 - (a) Know the current moment (Sū. 1.2.73)
 - (b) Whosoever observes this large universe (of the body), can have vigilant wandering.
- (c) The men with patience are engaged in the great path leading towards the objectives. This great path is the path of salvation.

(4) Yoga in Sthānāṅga (Numerated Stationing)

We get analysis of yoga of sitting posture and introspective reflections in the form of magnet in *Sthānāriga*.

- (1) The Yoga of Sitting Postures
- (a) There are five kinds of sitting postures (for meditation):
- (1) Sitting hands-on-knees or Cock-posture.
- (2) Cow-milking-like posture (Godohikā)
- (3) Squatting on ground placing two feet and thighs (Samapāyapuţa).
- (4) Sitting on hams posture (Paryarika).
- (5) Semi-sitting on hams posture. (Th. 5.50)
- (b) The virtuous meditation has four introspective reflections:
- (1) Solitariness (2) Impermanence (3) Refugelessness (4) Cycle of birth and death (Th. 4.68).
- (2) Four Introspective Reflections of Absolute or White Meditation

There are four introspective reflections of the white meditation:

- (1) Reflection on infinite modes/propensities.
- (2) Reflection on transformations.
- (3) Reflection on the inauspicious.
- (4) Reflection on removal of worldly troubles.

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(5). Yoga in Samavāyāṅga (Book on Categories)

In Jaina tradition, the term 'yoga' is used to mean the propensities or activities of mind, speech and body. However, in this text, the term indicates trance (Samādhi). All the 32 yogas mentioned here are instrumental in leading to trance state. Hence, the aphorism may also be called as Aphorism of Trance (Samādhi Sūtra). The thirty two yogas are as follows:

- 1. Confession (Alocanā): Description of one's own non-vigilance or flaws
- 2. Concealment (*Nirapalāpa*): Non-confessed non-vigilance.
- 3. Rigid Religiosity during emergency (Āpātakāla main Dṛḍha-dharmatā): Maintenance of religiously during any emergency.
- 4. Assistance-less austerity (*Aniśrita-upadhāna*): To undertake austerity or religious observance without help from others.
- 5. Education (Śikṣā): Reading and teaching of the meaning of aphorisms and act or behave accordingly.
- 6. Non-adoration of Body (Nis-pratikramatā): Renunciation of medication or adoration of body.
- Unknown-ness (Ajñānatā): Undertaking austerity as an unknown, not to show or describe to others.
- 8. Non-greediness (Alobhatā): To practice contentment or non-avarice-ness.
- 9. Forbearance (*Titikṣā*): Edurance of internal or external troubles. To practice winning over the afflictions (*Parisahās*).
- 10. Straightforwardness (Ārjava): Simplicity or honesty
- 11. Purity (Suci): Purification of defilements; To practice truth, restraint etc.
- 12. Right Vision (Samyak-dṛṣṭī): Purification of right faith or vision.
- 13. Health of Psyche (Samādhi): State of the psychical health; Trance.
- 14. Practices ($\bar{A}c\bar{a}ra$): To observe the rules of conduct in a right way; Not to be fraudulent in it.
- 15. Enriched-in Reverence (Vinayopaga): To be reverence-ful, Not to be proud.
- 16. Enduring Intelligence (*Dhṛti-mati*): Intelligence with patience;
- 17. Desire for Salvation (Samvega): Detachment from the world or desire for liberation.
- 18. Reflective Meditation (*Panidhi*): Concentration on mental efforts.
- 19. Good Ritual Activity (Suvidhi): Auspicious rituals.
- 20. Stoppage (Samvara): Checking or control over the karmic influx.
- 21. Conclusion of Defilements of the Self (Ātmā-doṣopa-sanhāra): To summarize one's own defilements
- 22. Detaci ment from Sensuals (Sarvakāma-virahitatā): Non-attachment towards sense-objects.
- 23. Renunciation-I (*Pratyākhyāna*): Renunciation related with secondary attributes.
- 24. Renunciation-II (*Pratyākhyāna*): Renunciation related with primary attributes.
- 25. Internal Abandonment (*Vyutsarga*): Internal abandonment of attachment with body, foods and drinks, secondary possessions and passions.
- Vigilance (Apramāda): Renunciation of non-vigilance or carelessness.
- 27. Ever-awake (*Lavālava*): To be always awake in the observance of the monastic conduct. [Here, the term '*lava*' means 'moment'. Thus, '*Lavālava*' means to remain vigilant every moment. The monks following time-bound conduct always practice vigilance. They are never non-vigilant even for a moment. Howevers, if there is non-vigilance, they expiate immediately for it].

- Yoga of Meditation on Great Vitality (Mahāprāņa-dhyāna Yoga): To undertake the practice of meditation on great vitality.
- 29. Fruition of Death-ending Time (*Māraṇāntika*): Not to be disturbed on the fruition of the feeling or pains of death; To remain peaceful and happy at that time.
- 30. Renunciation of Attachment (Sanga-parijñā): Renunciation of attachment from every object.
- 31. Atonementation (*Prāyaścittakaraṇa*): To undertake process of expiation for transgressions or flaws.
- 32. Last Stage of Discipline at Death-bed (*Māraṇāntika Ārādhanā*): To offer worship to the Lord at the time of death; To observe the last stage of disciplines at death-bed.

(6) Yoga in Bhagavatī

In early scriptural texts, the use of the words like 'Saridhi', (Centre of Consciousness), Vivara (Holes), Randhra (Holes), Cahra '(Cycles), Kamala (Lotus), Karana (Volitions) etc. is observed nearly in a synonymous way.

(1) Kinds of Volition (Karaṇās)

The living beings have four kinds of volitions:

(1) Mental volitions (2) Vocal volitions (3) Bodily volition and (4) Karma-based volitions.

Besides the above scriptures, other canonical texts like *Uttarādityayana*, *Daša-vaikālika*, *Anūyoga dvāra* (Doors of Disquisitions), *Aupapātika* and *Nandi-Sūtra* etc. also contain material related with the *Dhyāna-yoga*. It is not described here because of lack of space.

(7) Yoga in the Compositions of Kundakunda (1-2nd century AD).

In the early centuries of Christian era, the Jaina tradition has a shiring star who totally devoted his life in describing the importance of the realisation of self-soul. His name is Ācārya Kundakunda. He has discussed many important points about yoga in his texts of Niyama Sāra, Samaya-sāra, Mokṣa-pāhuḍa (Gift of Liberation) and others. He has impressed upon the supreme necessity of undertaking meditational practices. It is only through meditation that an individual acquires the knowledge of inner soul by renouncing the materialist attitude. Not only this, leads him to the self-realisation, but he also becomes the supreme soul himself. We find for the first time in Jaina literature the detail of description of the journey from the materialist soul upto the supreme soul as illustrated by Kundakunda.

(8) Yoga in Tattavārtha Sūrva (Formulae on Reals) By Umāsvāti (3rd century A.D.).

The essence of the Jaina canons has been presented in $Tattv\bar{a}rtha$ $S\bar{u}tra$. The whole text has described the path of liberation through the seven reals like the living and non-living etc. The right conduct and meditation form the important position among its contents. Possibly, it is Umāsvāti who has attracted our attention towards charactering the path of the liberation (Mokṣa $m\bar{a}rga$) for the first time which has three components: (1) Right faith (2) Right knowledge and (3) Right conduct. This three-component-based differentia of the path of liberation has been propounded by Umāsvāti only which has become a model for the later Jaina $\bar{A}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}s$. It also seems that the term 'meditation' ($Dhy\bar{a}na$) has also not been defined earlier in the way he has defined. According to him, meditation is the concentration of mind on an object. Along with the definition, he has also mentioned about the physical structure of the meditator. He has also stated the maximum duration of meditation is an Aritar- $muh\bar{u}rata$ (48 mts.). The virtuous and absolute mediations have been stated to be the causes of liberation. This indicates that the sorrowful ($\bar{A}rta$) and Cruel (Raudra) meditations are the causes of worldly cycles. He has mentioned the various elements of conduct for the purity of the soul.

(9) Yoga is Āvaśyaka-Niryukti(Abstractions of the Essentials) of Bhadrabāhu-II (4-5th century A.D.)

Ācārāya Bhadrabāhu commands a high respect and regard in the Jaina tradition. He may be regarded as an accomplished yogi on the basis of his chapter on Kāyotsārga (physical relaxation) in Āvaśyaka-Niryukti. This chapter has described the Kāyotsarga process in detail. The Kāyotsarga is an integral part of the Jaina spiritual practices. Without it, there can be no meditational accomplishment. The book has defined mediation as the concentration of mind. Further, it has also been stated that meditation is not only mental. It may be mental, vocal or bodily also, and one should practice all of these three varieties. As in Tattvārtha Sūtra, this text also mention four kinds of meditation. The first two lead to the worldly cycles and the last two lead to the salvation. Hence, only the last two meditations are autherised to be practiced for spiritual objectives. It has mentioned the maximum duration of mediation as an Aritarmuhurta. The book has illustrated the subjects like meaning, objective, process, kinds, effects and qualifications for the practitioner of Kāyotsarga and relationship between meditation and Kāyotsarga. After all these descriptions, it is 'mentioned that Kāyotsārga leads to the release from all kinds of sufferings. Briefly, it can be said that Kāyotsarga is the leader towards the path of liberation.

(10) Yoga in the Books of Pujyapāda Devanandi (5-6th century A.D.)

Two books of Pujyapaada are sufficiently famous: (1) Samādhi Tantra (System of Trance) and (2) Istopadeśa (Teachings of the Supremely Desired). The Samādhi-tantra commences with the knowledge about the pure soul and it ends with the statement that the meditational trance is the path of shiring bliss. The acquirement of pure soul requires the knowledge of the various forms and natures of the soul. Accordingly, like Kundakunda, Pujyapāda has also described the three states of the soul-external, internal and supreme. The external soul (Bahiratmā) is the state of the soul totally devoid of the knowledge of the soul. In this state, the living being admits only his body as soul. When he learns that the concept of body as soul is the root cause of worldly suffering, he overlooks the above concept and begins to believe in the existence of soul encapsulated in the body. This state is known as internal soul state (Antarātmā). When the living being knows that the body and the soul are different, and accordingly, he alienates himself from all the non-living objects and even from all kinds of activities. He realizes the pure soul. Thus, he stays with the soul only and later becomes the supreme soul (parmātmā). This state of supreme soul has been designated as the state of salvation wherefrom there is no return into the world. The text has illustrated through many similes that the absorbance into the soul and keeping one's intellect into the soul itself is the powerful means for the release from the sufferings.

The second important book of Pujyapāda is *Iṣtopadeśa*. The term '*Iṣṭa*' means the most desired-salvation. One should control the senses through the concentration of mind and, then, meditate on soul through the soul of the self. The *Adhyātma* yoga is to constantly meditate and realize the self-soul which leads to total karmic shedding. For the manifestation of the true nature of the soul, the absorbance in the soul has been admitted as the essential component. The book has described the process of absorbance in the depth of the soul through simple and easily comprehensible language. When absorbed in the soul, one experiences an inexpressible bliss in one's heart. The soulist have this bliss as the most desired one. The acquirement of the grandeur of incomparable salvation is possible only through the knowledge and realisation of the soul.

(11) Yoga in *Dhyāna Sataka* (Centuriad on Mediation) of *Jina-bhadra Gaṇi* (6th century A.D.).

The book of *Dhyāna Šataka* is an important text on mediation composed in *Prākṛta* language. Its author is well-versed in the theoretical and practical aspect of meditation. A majority of verses of this text are quoted in the *Dhavalā* commentary of *Ṣaṭ-Khaṇḍāgama* (Six-sectioned Canon). While describing the importance of meditation, it has been stated that the *karmās* are ashifted by it and it is the cause of liberation. The author has given, a very clear definition of meditation while keeping both the omniscient and non-omniscient in mind. The mediation is the concentration of mind on an object and control of activities. Thus, he has tried to

clarify the point that it is with respect to the meditation of the non-omniscient when it is stated that the meditation in the steady mental effort, and it is the meditation of the omni-scient when it is said that meditation is the cessation of activities. Like Umāsvāti, he has also stated that the time of meditation is an Antarmuhūrta.

The author has also discussed the four kinds of meditation like Umāsvāti. The four varieties each of the sorrowful and cruel meditation along with their four characteristics each. With reference to the virtuous meditation or meditation on reality, Jinabhadra Gaṇī, for the first time, has described the reflections, location, time, postures, support, order, objective, meditator, introspection, aureoles, signs and effect of this meditation. With reference to location and time, he opines that that location and time is the best wherever and whenever the mind, speech and body are in unison. The practitioners of virtuous meditation and the first two varieties of absolute meditation can only be those individuals who are at the spiritual stages of subsided and destroyed delusion (or passions). In contrast, the practitioner of the third variety of absolute meditation is the dynamic omniscient and that of the last variety is the static omniscient.

12. Yoga in the Books of Haribhadra (8th century).

The period of eighth century AD may be admitted as very important with respect to spiritual advancement. We find many new areas in the field of spirituality. This era could be called a golden age with respect to spiritual thoughts and practices. During this period, Haribhadra appears on the horizon and we observe the beginning of new era in Jaina Yoga Literature. He did have all the spiritual wealth of his era before him which involved at the traditions including Jainas, Buddhist, and Patanjala Yoga. On many issues, he has offered a new definition to the Jaina style of treatment. He has also compared the Jaina spiritual practices with the other yoga systems. He laid the foundation of a new chapter of coordination by studying the uniformity among the yoga contents of different systems. We have currently four books on yoga composed by him:

- (1) Yoga-bindu (Drop of Yoga).
- (2) Yoga-drsti-Samucchaya (Compendium of Yogic Views).
- (3) *Yoga-Śataka* (Centuriads on Yoga) (4) *Yoga-vinriikā* (Two Decads on Yoga)

The aspirant moves on the path of spiritual perfection. Both-his own capacities and beauty of the pathcombined together fulfills his objective. The 'Yoga-biridu' is a great book of spiritual-based yoga. In this book, Ācārya Haribhadra systematizes the yoga in terms of five components on the basis of its gradual development:

- (1) Adhyātma yoga 🗼
- (2) Bhāvanā yoga (1 oga of Reflection)
- (3) Dhyāna yoga (Yoga of Meditation).
- (4) Equarimity Yoga (Samatva-Yoga).
- (5) Dieselve of psychic propensity Yoga (Vrtti-kṣaya Yoga).

The following description mentions how this five-fold Yoga could be practiced.

(1) Adh atma Yoga

The Adhyātma-based yoga is to have auspicious thinking with the mind full with the reflections on friendship delight etc. while observing the monastic or householder's conduct. There is no fruition of the seeds if vows without nectar-like watering through these reflections. Therefore, the first stage of spiritual practices is not the yows but the reflections attached with them.

(2) Bhāvanā Yoga

The term 'Bhāvanā' means to colour the mind with the colour of the objective. This dissolves the predispositions of earlier birth and creates new pre-dispositions. Hence, one should have new experiments on reflections through tranceful thoughts and in-bred conscience. The main function of reflections is to create internal awareness. This is the only experiment when the scriptural knowledge moves to get transformed into spiritual knowledge. Slowly, this eagerness creates an atmosphere for meditation at a limiting point.

(3) Dhyāna Yoga (Yoga of Meditation)

After wandering in a single garden of volitions for a long time, the psyche becomes easily concentrated on it. The meditation is that state of consciousness where all the variant thoughts get eased and the soul becomes steady in the pure consciousness like a steady lamp-flame. This increasing purity and steadiness of mind awakens the non-attached view towards all the material entities. Slowly, mind-attracting three d of delusion gets leaned and, ultimately, it gets cut off by the the sharp edge of equanimity.

4. Samatva Yoga (Equanimity Yoga)

The axis of the wheel of every religion is equanimity. It is a philosophers' stone ($P\bar{a}rasa$) whose touch alone makes all the spiritual practices to glow. The sensual cycle born through attachment, aversion, and delusion gets ineffective in the presence of even the shadow of equanimity. It is the support of the yoga of equanimity which makes the yogi rise above the imaginary ducts of pleasure and pain, mind-pleasing and unpleasing and the desired and undesired etc. The various kinds of super-attainments and supra-sensual experiences described in the scriptures are the effects for the best practices of this yoga. It can be said, in brief, regarding the yoga of equanimity that it is the prelude to the history of all the systems of Jaina spiritual practices. While accomplishing this practice, all the defiled psychic states begin to dissolve.

5. Yoga of Dissolution of Psychic States or Propensities

The meditation leads to equanimity and equanimity causes the dissolution of psychic propensities. It is only after the complete purification of the psychic that there arises the state of the dissolution of psychic propensities. At this stage, the inner realization does not only evacuate the roots of defilements but it begins to even to burn them. This increasing dissolution of defilements, later, gets transformed into liberatedness. Haribhadra out of these five components of yoga, Haribhadra has compared the first tour with imperfact trance (Samprajñāta Samādhi) and the fifth one of the dissolution of psychic propensities has been compared with perfect trance (Asamgrajñāta samādhi; Yoga-bindu, 419-21).

2. Yoga-dṛṣṭi-Samuchchaya

This book consists of 227 Sańskṛta verses. We find high uniqueness and originality in the contents discussed in the book. The true insight is the solid basis of spiritual progress. Every worldly being enjoys the material world. However, his viewpoint and enjoyment criteria determines the introvert and extrovert propensities. There are two main viewpoints: (1) general (Ogha) and (2) Yogic. The Ogha viewpoint is that which is found common to all. This viewpoint does not have the idea of originality, reality and naturality. It has the special tendency of blind following and world-inclination.

The yogic viewpoint is just the opposite. The eight *dṛṣṭis* (viewpoints) are its varieties. Out of them, the first four *dṛṣṭis* carry the living being towards the righteousness while instilling normal wisdom in him. These *dṛṣṭis* may be acquired by the wrong-faithed ones who earn lighter *karmās*. It is due to this specificity that these *dṛṣṭis* have been called 'Steady *dṛṣṭis*' in some places.

Names and Characteristics of Eight *drstis*: 1. *Mitrā Drstii* (Viewpoint of Friendliness)

This *dṛṣṭi* leads to (1) friendliness towards the biological world, (2) idea of service to others and (3) science of differentiation between body and soul. This *dṛṣṭi* has sufficiently lessened perception about the soul. This has been compared with straw-fire. Just as the straw fire gets out with a momentary glow, similarly, the general soul-consciousness in the wrong-faithed soul also gets off after initial lightning. However, this general consciousness does not create any new encouragement for higher ladders but there is gradual decrease in sadness and indolence in performing good activities due to repeated practice of this *dṛṣṭi*. It leads to the manifestation of the soul-quality of 'non-sadness'. Along with this, the living being also acquires the psyche of 'non-aversion'. Due to this psyche, the aspirant becomes equanimous and tolerant towards those who transgress the natural laws. This knowledge is the first step in the great path of spiritual development.

Ācārya Haribhadra has compared this *dṛṣṭi* with *Yama* (life-long vows) component of the eight-fold Patanjala yoga. This is correct also because the psyche of qualities like non-aversion etc. can not be acquired until one practices, under limits, the five-fold Yama vows of non-violence and truth etc. In fact, the *Mitrā dṛṣṭis* is the systematised form of friendliness.

2. Tārā Dṛṣṭi(Starry Viewpoint)

This *dṛṣṭi* is called 'starry' one. The soul-consciousness is somewhat more locid here in comparison to the *Mitrā Dṛṣṭi*. This *dṛṣṭi* has been compared with the fire of dried cowdung cake. Though this fire is stronger than the straw-fire, but it also does not have steadiness. It is the reason, why the man with this *dṛṣṭi*, can not think steady for the good of the self and others. In the 'starry *dṛṣṭi*', the inquisitiveness appears gradually, the inquisitiveness towards truth gets transformed into the enquiry about the soul. This *dṛṣṭi* has been compared with the component of *Niyama* (Time-bound vows) of the eightfold *thaga* because this makes the avowed one to be practice-oriented.

3. *Dṛṣṭi*of strength

This is the third *dṛṣṭi*. This leads to greater awakening towards the objective. Its philosophy of self-consciousness is gradually more lucid than the earlier *dṛṣṭi*. The centers of conventional thoughts and beliefs begin to get away with this *dṛṣṭi*. The preparation for breaking the attachmental knots starts from this *dṛṣṭi*. This *dṛṣṭi* has been compared with the wood-fire, as this fire-flame is stable. One can read oneself in this *dṛṣṭi*, and one begins to know what is hidden in which corner of life. The flaw of distraction (*Kṣeṇa*) gets pacified and the desire for listening is awakened here gradually, the material thirst of the person having this viewpoint gets contented. The main function of this *dṛṣṭi* is to awaken interest in good activities.

4. Viprā dṛṣṭi(View-point of Shuning)

This is the fourth *insti*. The self-consciousness becomes gradually more pronounced here. Though chances of downfall are reduced here, but they are not completely removed. The lamp does not lighten the distant objects in the same way as it lightens the near-by objects. The flaw of raising up (*utthāna doṣa*) gets away in this viewpoint. Just as the calm sea does not have the rising wave-tides, similarly, the worldly-oriented tides of thought do not arise continuously in the pacified mind. The person begins to realize the importance of religion and conduct besides the body and objects of senses. Despite all the progress, the person with this *Jṛṣṇ* may have a downfall on the spiritual ladder.

5. Sthira dṛṣṭi(Viewpoint of Stability)

This *dṛṣṭi* is the first step towards the stable spiritual development. The other name of this *dṛṣṭi* is 'Avedya-Saṁvedya' (Sensibility towards the unknown). In this *dṛṣṭi*, the knowledge about the soul is very lucid and stable like the shine of gems. The minimization of external attraction is possible only when there is growth in the inclination towards the soul. This *dṛṣṭi* strengthens the qualities of non-aversion, inquisitiveness,

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desire to listen and the quality of listening etc. acquired in the earlier drsp and one acquires the fifth quality of 'fine-perception.' Now, the soul stops to move on the indications from others. His tendency of seeking help from others also, nearly, goes away. There are simultaneous vibrations at the root of defilements. It means to shake away the invincible walls of eternal 1-ness and myness. On acquiring this drsp, the aspirant begins to acquire some yogic powers. The first sign of yogic activity is steadiness, health, softness, auspicious smell, clean excretions, shining body, happiness, and melodious voice.

Ācārya Haribhadra has compared this *dṛṣṭi* with the component of *Pratyāhāra* (returning back) of the eight-fold yoga. Its result is the stablisation of mind and senses in one object or area. By this time, the eyes have been accustomed to see external forms. Now they, sometimes, will begin to look internal forms. The ears will listen to internal sounds which were experiencing the external vibrations only. In this *dṛṣṭi*, the difference between the soul and body becomes more elucidated and reaches a point of non-contact among them.

6. Kāntā dṛṣṭi(Viewpoint of the Beloved)

In this *dṛṣṭi*, the viewpoint of service or beneficence to others gets awakened. This causes the memory of the objective (of spiritual progress) always to be there. The knowledge of the self-developed due to this *dṛṣṭi* has been compared with the shine of stars, as this shine does not change every moment. Under this steady light, the aspirant, sometimes, looks into his inner. This *dṛṣṭi*, leads him to acquire the supernatural art of crossing the double mind of enjoyment and renunciation. Under this *dṛṣṭi*, the strong power of enjoyment cannot win over the power of religiosity.

The acquirement of this volitional state, the mind learns to be steady on a single support. *Patañjalī* has compared this capacity of the soul with the sixth component of retention or *Dhāranā* of his eight-fold yoga.

7. *Dṛṣṭis* of *Prabhā* (Viewpoint of Lustre)

The term ' $Prabh\bar{a}$ ' means the state of absorbance of the soul with the objective for a long time. At this point, the aspirant attains the capacity to see and understand the psychic flow. When one digs the inside, one gets darkness in the first instance. The aspirant tries to have a lighted handle to destroy this darkness to proceed ahead on the path of spiritual development. Gradually, the enlightenment from this drsti goes on increasing and it gets like the sun where there is no darkness at all. The qualities or objects, which are peeped by the drsti of the beloved, are not deeply experienced by the aspirant in this drstis. This leads the body to be free from diseases and to enjoy unprecedented peace. Later, he acquires the quality of detachment while learning and withering the karmic flaws. This drst has been compared with the seventh component of meditation of $Pata\hat{n}$ jala yoga. In other words, this drst represents the peace-carrying psyche.

8. The Parā dṛṣṭi(The Supreme Viewpoint)

This *dṛṣṭi* is the terminal state of spiritual development which has been called *'Samādhi'* (Trance, Ecstasy or supreme equanimity) by *Patafijalī*. After acquiring this state, the aspirant does not need to undertake any action-based yoga. Whatever karmic obscuration is there, one needs only awakened towards it. On reaching this stage, the knowledge of the self takes the shape of the soul itself. At this point, there is only volitions of pure soul. Nothing is formed or destroyed inside. All the defilements disappear on their own. This is called the state of liberation or *Mokṣa*. In this state, the knowledge is dissolved in the conduct. Now, the individual is perfect and he is leading towards the complete perfection.

3. Yoga Šataka (Centuriad of Yoga)

This book is composed of 100 verses in *Prākrita*. Ācārya Haribhadra is more lucid in terms of Jinistic yogic background in *Yoga-Şaṭaka*. This book has mentioned four backgrounds:

- (i) Non-rebonding (*Apunar-baridhaka*): The individual with non-rebonding background has only one round of worldly cycle remaining or he is not going to the bondage of strong wrong-faith again.
 - (ii) Right Predilection: Internal predilection towards the truth.
 - (iii) Partial Abstinence: Partial movement towards the truth.
 - (iv) Total Abstinence: Total non-attraction towards the world of senses.

What could be the simple or natural method for the progress in these backgrounds? In response to this question, Haribhadra states that there could be two methods in this direction: (a) Internal methods and (b) External methods.

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(a) Internal methods

- (i) Repetitive thinking on transgressions or flaws of the self.
- (ii) Practice of the mental resolve on the science of discrimination.
- (iii) Special attention on introspective reflections.

(b) External methods

- (i) Knowledge about the public views about one-self.
- (ii) Maximum possible contact with the (spiritually) qualified and respected people.
- (iii) To follow the religious teachers or good literature.

4. Yoga-vinišikā (Two Decads on Yoga)

This book has 20 verses in *Prākrita*. This describes the yoga very briefly. During the canonical period, the term 'Adhyātma' (Spiritualism) was used for the methods of orserving (1) Major vows (2) Reflections (3) Monasticism (4) Austerities (5) Winning over passions, and others. Haribhadra gave the name of yoga to spiritualism. In his yogic system, the term yoga has not only been the indicator of spiritualism, but it has also been an expression for it. He has stated every introvert propensity as yoga. In other words, yoga is any religious activity which leads the worldly soul towards liberation. According to the philosophy of Mahāvīra, any activity without knowledge has been admitted as a supporter of inertia and the knowledge devoid of activity as the cause of suffering. Haribhadra has co-ordinated this view in terms of (i) Yoga of Knowledge and (ii) Yoga of Action in his five-component yoga system. The following two forms are symbolic of the yoga of Action and the other three ones represent the yoga of knowledge.

(a) Yoga of Stationing or Steadiness (Sthāna Yoga)

The term 'Sthāna' (Statio ang) means to hold the body steadily on a specific shape. The Jinistic scriptures have been using the term 'Shāna' to represent the Jinistic spiritual practices. They were taken as essential. Almost all the religious rituals have a prescribed postures. Of course, there has been some laxity with the times. Many prescriptions were left out or transgressed. Today, we need to expose these methods. The practice of the yoga of postures not only makes the body steady, but it also leads to mental steadiness. It is why, it is absolutely necessary to have a specific posture during the practices like equanimity, peritential retreat and teacher-veneration and others.

(b) Urga Yoga (Yoga of Pronunciation)

Any religious practice performed devoid of prescribed method, takes a long time for its successful effect. This procedure does not lead to remove the psychic troubles, and it slowly fills the subconscious mind with dis-belief. That is why, Haribhadra stated that the postures make one steady. One should pronounce the incantation or scriptural sentence prescribed for the ritual correctly and clearly. The name 'Urna yoga' indicates the correct pronunciation.

(e) Yoga of Meaning (Artha-yoga)

Our body has some cognitive or sensory nerves whose functional development does not depend on their activity, but on their concentration on an object. The incantation without the knowledge of its meaning does not perform any function except filling the mind with pre-dispositions. The final stage of success due to prayers or worships is not due to filling the mind but due to evacuation of mind with any disposition.

(d) Support-based Yoga (Alambana Yoga)

The psyche in the shape of meaning reaches very near the retained objective. During the period of prayer or worship, there is predominance of the yoga of knowledge. Our consciousness ascends in proportion to our quantum of knowledge-based consciousness. It is, therefore, essential that while undertaking any religious ritual, we should associate our mind with great activities like self-study, repetitive recital, meditation, relaxation and others.

(e). Devoid-of-support Yoga (*Nirālaṁbana* Yoga)

The devoid-of support yoga is the thinking over the qualities of knowledge etc. and the soul- the basis of these qualities or to get absorbed in the soul or its qualities without having any specific support like those in 4 above.

13. Yoga in Jñānārṇava (Ocean of Knowledge) of Śubha Cańdra (11* century AD).

Jñānārṇava of Śubhcaṅdra is quite a large treatise on Jaina yoga. The book is in Saṅsḥa with 42 chapters (sargas) and it describes yoga deeply in an easily comprehensible style. It has highly imphasized the awakening of detachmethal attitude, and, therefore, it has prescribed yoga for ascetics also. This text shows high similarly with Yoga Śāstra of Hemacaṅdra with respect to the subject content, technical terminology, and descriptive style etc. The soul is in the form of pure knowledge which is obscured due to attachment and aversion etc. For the realization of the true nature of the scul, it is necessary that attachment and aversion etc. are destroyed. The total destruction of the karmās is the liberation. The passions are removed through the victory over senses. The victory over senses is possible only through the purity of mind. The non-steadiness of mind is removed by experiencing the difference between the body and the soul. The cessation of mental activity takes place by getting the attachment and aversion away. In other words, the component of Pratyāhāra leads to the cessation of mental activity. The Pratyāhāra makes the mind healthy. The means for removing the attachment and aversion is the practice of the yoga of equanimity. This is the central point of the yogic practices, as it can lead to absorb oneself in the true nature of the soul.

This book has lucidly described the varied related subjects like (1) place of meditation, (2) time of meditation (3) qualifications of the meditator (4) Various types of meditation and others. There is a detailed description of the four varieties of virtuous meditation like the meditation on object etc. This description also includes the details about incantations (*Maritrās*). Perchance, Śubhacaridra is the first Jaina author who has described the four varieties of virtuous meditation. While describing about be four attitudes like friendliness etc, the book has also presented the generalized nature of the attitude on compassion.

14. Yoga in Adhyātma Tarangini of Somadeva (11th century)

This is a small book of 40 verses in *Sanskṛta*. These verses have briefly described the sorrowful, cruel, virtuous and absolute meditations in simple language which are the basic factors for spiritual development. This description is highly objective. This is preceded by the description of yogic postures of the great yogi to Ādinātha. The worldly soul becomes supreme soul by undertaking the yoga-practices in life.

"The book mentions that Bhagawān Ādinātha gets detached from worldly enjoyments when he saw

that the heavenly goddess *Nilanjanā*, while dancing, died suddenly. He adopted the yogic posture and undertook austerities. The author has tried to describe the nature of his yogic posture at that time. His description runs as follows:

"The Lord Ādinātha is under meditation and he is under the relaxational posture (*Kāyotsarga*). His sight is concentrated on the tip of the nose. Both of his arms are hanging down. His lotus like eyes are stable without blinking. He has won over (controlled) the breathing. He has got the river of non-ethics dried up. He is neutral towards the physical enjoyments. He is absorbed to trance. He is equanimous with the friend and foe. Thus, the Yogi Ādinātha is absorbed in the wonderful and enjoyable ecstacy of the soul. His yogic posture is highly attractive, deep and enjoyable by the observers. This posture does not only pronounce his capacity of being a supreme soul or paragon through yogic practices, but it also leaves an impression of the importance and the effect of yoga on the minds of the people.

15. Yoga in Yoga Śāstra (Treatise on Yoga) of Hemacandra (12th century AD).

Ācārya Hemacandra of 11-12th century AD composed *Yoga Śāstra* in simple and easily comprehensible *Sariskṛta* language. It has 1000 verses divided in 12 chapters (*prakāśās*). It describes the practice of yoga in all its details. Hemachandra has illustrated the importance of yoga by showing the non-differential relationship of the soul with the gem-trio on the basis of yoga practices. He has stated that the practices of equanimity is necessary to destroy passions, attachment and aversion. He has also mentioned the nature, process and effect of many introspective reflections to acquire equanimity. He has emphasized the attitudes of friendliness etc. which are helpful in meditation to be steady. After describing the processes of postures, breath-control, returning back and retention, he has enunciated, in detail, the nature of meditation, meditator and objects of meditation. He has also described in detail the traditional characteristics of the virtuous meditation and its four varieties in the form of meditation on object etc. He has also described many incantations and learnings in the process.

He has, then, discussed the nature, possessor, varieties etc. of the absolute meditation, and, later, about the liberated soul.

Hemacandra has described all the subjects learnt through scriptures and preceptors in the first 11 chapters. In the last twelfth chapter, he has described the four varieties of mind, Viksipta (distrated), Yātāyāta (transported), Śliṣṭa (clung), and Sulīna (absorbed) on the basis of his own yogic experiences. Thus, he has tired to create newness in the description of Yoga. Besides all this, he has also discussed the nature of the three varieties of soul like materialist etc. and means for the acquirement of spiritual accomplishment. Hemacandra has admitted the possibility of practice of meditation in the stage of householdership and has, therefore, described the nature of the votary, his vows, nature of his spiritual practices and their effects in two chapters.

16. Yoga in Adhyātmā-ra.pasya (Secret of Spiritualism) of Paṇḍit Āśādhara (13th century A.D.)

The subject content of this book is clear from its name only. The term 'Adhyātma' means the soul or supreme soul and its relations involving the relationship which occurs between the worldly being and the supreme soul instilled in the form of power and the individual. The term 'Rahasya' means secret, invisible or vital element. These meanings indicate that this book briefly deals with the soul and supreme soul and their realistically illustrating relationship which the common man does not know. The subject is dealt with in brief only because the book has a small size of only seventy two verses and, hence, it could be discussed in brief only.

Ācārya Kundakunda in his *Mokṣa Pāhuḍa* (Gift of Liberation) and Pujyapāda in his *Samādhi Tantra* (System of Trance) have classified the soul in three categories: (1) External soul, (2) Internal soul, (3) Supreme soul.

These categories of soul do not represent any caste or creed, but they are representative of the specific state of the liberatable soul. (Bhavya- $\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$). However, in the text of $\bar{A}\bar{s}\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$, he has designated these classes as (i) self-soul ($Sv\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$) (ii) pure self-soul ($SuddhaSv\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$) and (iii) Supreme soul or ParaBrahma which indicates that 'Para-brahma' here means supreme soul, the pure self-soul indicates the internal soul and the term ' $Sv\bar{a}tm\bar{a}$ ' indicates the external or impure soul as it precedes the pure soul.

17. Yoga in *Adhyātm-Kalpadruma* (Wish-fulfilling Tree of Spiritualism) of Ācārya SundarSūri (15th century A.D.)

The Jaina authors admit four kinds of positings (Nikṣepās). These are the different disquisition doors for looking at things with different perspectives. The spiritualism may also have these four disquisition doors for its study. They are (1) Namal spiritualism (2) Installational spiritualism (3) Substantive spiritualism and (4) Modal spiritualism (bhāva-Adhyātma). The namal spiritualism means just to pronounce or name 'Adhyātma' without understanding its meaning. Similarly, the persons are called 'Ādhyātmik' (spiritualists) who make a show of spiritualism without any modal change. The installational spiritualism is defined as to install an idol or image of the person with a life of spiritualism or to make a lettered structure of spiritualism or to make a lettered structure of spiritualism itself. The substantive spiritualism is defined as those teachings or audio-visual means which encourage spiritualism. Secondly, it may also be the substantive spiritualism which directs one to undertake the control of inbreathing, out-breathing and holding-breathing externally so that the people may feel that this leads one to be introvert to learn the nature of the soul. However, the person remains blank as before. The modal spiritualism is defined as to have propensities representing the mode of the nature of own self.

The meaning of the term 'Adhyātma' has such a great meaning. This is itself a kalpa-druma. Just as one acquires the cherished material from the wish-fulfilling tree similarly, this text is also a kalpadruma. If a spiritualist desires any thing related with the spiritual cosmos, he may get it somewhere (in the book). This book has also described the avoidable worldly behaviour and its cruel nature associated with the spiritual practices. It is due to all these facts that it is possible that many useful subjects related with spiritualism can be found in this book.

This book has 16 chapters (Adhikārās) winch are named as below:

- (1) Equanimity (Samatā)
- Attachment with women iny-ness about women- strī-mamatva).
- (3) My-ness about son (Putra-mamatwa).
- (4) My-ness about wealth (Dhana-mamatva)
- (5) My-ness about body (Deha-mamatva).
- (6) Non-vigilance (pramāda).
- (7) Passions (Kasāya)
- (8) Spriptural studies (Śāstragati).
- (9) Suppression of Psyche (Citta-damana).
- (10) Detachment (Vairāgya).
- (11) Purity of Righteousness (Dharma-śuddhi).
- (12) Purity of Teacher (Guru-śuddhi).
- (13) Learning Ascetihood (Yati-śikṣā).
- (14) Stoppage of karmās (Samvara).
- (15) Auspicious propensity (Śubha pravrtti).
- (16) Equanimity (Sāmya).

Thus, there is description of equanimity in the beginning of this text and there is also the description of it is the end of the book. Thus, this text has expressed the importance of equanimity.

18. Yoga in *Śānta-sudhā-rasa* (Flavour of Peaceful Neetar) of Upādhyāya Vinaya Vijaya (18th century AD).

The introspective reflections have an important place in the Jaina system of spiritual practices. The insight leads to acquire the truth and the introspective reflection changes the old pre-dispositions. There is no simultaneous mention of twelve reflections in the early scriptures. However, the later literature contains them in a coordinated way. Umāsvāti has mentioned twelve reflections in his *Tattartha-Sūtra*. Many texts like 'Baarasa Anuvekkhaa' of Kundakunda and 'Kārtikeyānuprakṣā' of Svāmī-Kumāra and others are also available which describes them. Upādhyāya Vinaya-Vijayajī developed this tradition and has authored the above poetic text which could be musically adopted. It contains sixteen reflections.

This text is an important work in the tradition of poetic literature in *Sariskṛta*. It has a mature language, powerful expression, depth in essence and pleasing style. There is flow of inductive power in this text full of peaceful literary sentiment. The author has also composed some poems in very heart-touching form. They are very useful for the present problems.

The essence or formula of insight meditation (*Prekṣā-dhyāna*) is the balance between the intellectual and reflective development. The insight meditation is a solution to the problems of the present. Upādhyāyaji has composed a poem which means that this world is full of delusion and suffering. There is no nectar of peace even in the minds of the scholars or saints without reflections. Without them, there is no happiness also.

19. Yoga in Compositions of Upādhyāya Yośovijayajī (18th century AD).

Upādhyāya Yaśovijaya has promoted the tradition of Jaina yoga through many of his compositions in eighteenth century. He has written many books in *Sariskria* and *Gujarātī*. All his composition indicate his wide study, deep thinking and coordinative viewpoint. It seems that his wisdom has been most elaborate only in his books on yoga. We find the following books on yoga by him:

- (1) Adhyātmā Sāra (Essence of Spiritvelism)
- (2) Adhyātmā-upaniṣada (Proximity to Spiritualism).
- (3) Jñāna Sāra (Essence of Knowledge)
- (4) Dvā-tririsat tīkā (Three Decads and two with Commentary)
- (5) Dvā-trinśikā (Three Decads and two on Yoga).
- (6) Vrtti on Hari-birācīra Yoga-vinšikā (Short Commentary on Two Decads on Yoga of Haribhara).
- (7) Vrtti on Sodaskā: (Short Commentary on Sixteenad).
- (8) Vritti on Pātanjala- Yoga Sūtra (Short commentary on Paatanjala Yoga Treatise).
- (9) Sajjhāya on Eight Yoga-dṛṣṭis in Yoga-dṛṣṭis Samuccaya of Haribhadra in Gujrātī

In the first three of his books, he has given a fine discussion on (1) The definition of spiritualism (2) The nature of the world or transmigration (3) detachment (4) Renunciation of attachment (5) Acceptance of attitude of equanimity (6) Good activities or rituals (7) Purity of mind (8) Nature of meditation and meditator (9) Time and place of meditation (10) Postures and support of meditation (11) Kinds of meditation and other subjects.

While elaborating on the objective of yoga of knowledge and action, Yośovijayajī points out that the yoga of action means good activities or it is the rightful performance of different religious activities as prescribed

in scriptures. In contrast, the yoga of knowledge is the absorbance in the nature of soul and detached attitude towards sense objects. The yoga of knowledge has only one object .. i.e. insight into soul. While describing the effect of meditation, he writes that it causes (1) the enlightenment of the soul. (2) It leads to the peace of mind. (3) It removes the differentiating attitude between the soul and supreme soul. Meditation is an incomparable nectar. It is the supreme flavour of soul. He presents the clear picture of the yogic practices of *Pātaĥjala* after describing some important elements of spiritualism in his *Dvā-trinśikās*. He also makes detailed discussions on the yoga books of Haribhadra in his *Dvā-trniśitrās*. We find a true analysical, comparative and coordinative insight of *Upādhyāyiji* in these books. Also, he has deeply analysed some of the aphorisms of *Pātaĥjali* with respect to the Jaina viewpoint and he has, as far as possible tried to coordinate his opinions, with the Jaina postulates. The contribution of *Upādhyāyaji* in comparative studies in Jaina yoga serves as a guide for us.

20. Yoga in *Dhyāna Prakaraņa* - (Case of Meditation) of Jayācārya (19th century)

Jayācārya had deeply studied meditation. He was familiar with the theoretical and practical aspects of the meditation. Maghavā Gaṇī has written in his biography that Jayācārya knew all tricks of the trade of the yoga doctrine.

Many books have been written on yoga in the languages of the country. Both the books- 'Baḍo Dhyāna' and 'Chhoṭo Dhyāna' (Major Meditation and Minor Meditation) composed by him in Gujrātī come in this category.

Bado Dhyāna (Major Meditation)

Jayācārya has briefly mentioned some of the systems of mediation in this book. He has stated that the basic element of Jaina spiritual practices is the 'Practice of Three Guards (*Tri-gupti sāddhanā*). It means the practice of (1) postures (2) silence and (3) mental concentration. The book of 'Bado Dhyāna' starts with this topic. In solving the problem of 'how to remove the unsteadiness of mind', he has mentioned to concentrate the psyche on the (1) inhaling and exhaling of air and (2) on the Sańskṛta syllable 'So-haṃ' (I am He). The second variety of meditation is called 'Tārthaṅkara Dhyāna' (Meditation on the ford-builders). The Siddha-Dhyāna (Meditation on the Liberated ones) and the tourth kind of meditation is called 'Karma-vipāka Dhyāna (Meditational Thinking on Karmic Fruition). After meditational practice, he has described about the deep thinking on 'the reflection on impurity'. In the end, he has mentioned the method of thinking over the nature of self-soul. Thus, this small book deals with the important elements of (1) insight into the breathing (2) meditation on aureoles (3) meditation on sameness (Tādātmya) (4) Meditation on nature of the soul and (5) reflection.

On reading this book, one feels that this book is not written on the basis of other books. It has been composed on the basis of ris practices and experiences. He has written, "Where there is pure meditation, many bad *karmās* are destroyed and many auspicious qualities appear. When we read 'Maritrās', meditation gets purer. One should trink over the nature of soul three times a day and it will be realised by you as the soul and the Jina stay in us."

This is an experience. It seems from this that the author must have practiced and experienced this kind of meditation and presented it in the form of a small book. It has described the science of differentiation. He has mentioned the difference between the $J\bar{v}a$ (soul) and Pudgala (mattergy) under more than forty heads. He has said that "(1) attachment and aversions (2) passions and (3) karmic influx do not belong to me. They are different from me. I have the nature of the tetrad of infinity \tilde{n} of knowledge, faith, conduct, and potency. I am pure, indestructive and the knower."

The distinctive features of the Jīva and Pudgala are given below:

The Jīva (Soul) is

- (1) Devoid of old age (Ajara)
- (3) Infinite (Ananta)
- (5) Steady (Acala)
- (7) Devoid of defects (Amala)
- (9) Indescribable (Anabhi)
- (11) Devoid of Activity (Akarma)
- (13) Devoid of karmic realization (Anudaya)
- (15) Static (Ayogī)
- (17) Devoid of diseases (Arogī)
- (19) Devoid of Division (Achhedi)
- (21) Devoid of passions (Akaṣāyī)
- (23) Devoid of body (Aśarīri)
- (25) Devoid of Intake (Anāhārī)
- (27) Neither-heavy-nor-light (Aguru Laghu)
- (29) Devoid of senses (Anindrī)
- (31) Devoid of Birth-place (Ayont)
- (33) Immortal (Amara)
- (35) Non-successive (Aparampāra)
- (37) Devoid of support (Anāśrita)
- (39) Consistent (Avirudha)
- (41) Invisible (Alakha)
- (43) Devoid of attachment (Asangi)
- (45) Knower of the universe and non-universe (Loka-aloka-Jĥāyaka)
- (47) Blissfully conscious (Cidānanda).

- (2) Beginningless (Anādi)
- (4) Aksaya (Indestructible)
- (6) Devoid of parts (Akala)
- (8) Impercievable (Agama)
- (10) Formless (Arūpī)
- (12) Non-bonder of karmās (Abandhaka)
- (14) Non-maturated (Anūdiraka)
- (16) Non-enjoyer (Abhogī)
- (18) Devoid of libido (Avedī)
- (20) Devoid of sorrow (Akhedī)
- (22) Devoid of aureoles (Alest)
- (24) Devoid of brightness (Abhāsī)
- (26) Devoid of obstructions (Avyābādha)
- (28) Indivisible (Abheau)
- (30) Devoid of vitalities (Aprānis).
- (32) Non-worldly (Asansārī)
- (34) Supreme (Apara)
- (36) Non-pervasive (Avyāpī)
- (38) Devoid of vibrations (Akampa)
- (40) Devoid of karmic influx (Anāśrava)
- (42) Devoid of sorrow (Aśoka)
- (44) Devoid of shape (Anākāra)
- (46) Pure and

In contrast, the Pudgala has different features from the $J\bar{v}a$. However, the (worldly) being is under the yokes of $karm\bar{a}s$. Because of this fact, the $J\bar{v}a$ does have the defiled nature of enjoying sensuals. Nevertheless, the living being does not get attached in them because he has a normal nature of pure and blissful consciousness. The $J\bar{v}a$ thinks that his nature is different from the enjoyership of the sensuals.

Thus, despite this text being small in size, it seems sufficiently large with respect to its contents.

Chhoto Dhyāna (Minor Meditation)

This book describes the system of meditation on great Bowings Litany (*Namaskāra Maritra*). It has a very small size and its contents are brief. Hence, its name 'Chhoto Dhyāna' is proper.

There is no knowledge about the place and time of composition of these two books of Jayacarya.

21. 'Manonu-Śāsa naŋ' (Disciplining of Mind) of Ganādhipati. GuruDeva Śrī Tulasijī (Twentieth century).

Ganādhipati Gurudeva Tulasī is one of the leading monk-scholars who has attempted to revive the disappearing. Jaina yoga tradition in the later part of twentieth century. He composed the book of 'Manonu-Sāsanam' in aphorismic style of Sańskna. It contains seven chapters, and 151 aphorisms. We observe the spiritually strengthened consciousness of the author in it. The book, though small in size, offers, vivification to

the yoga practitioners through compiling the great and enriched tradition of meditation continuing through 2500 years. According to the author, the mind is the active agent for all the activities of the life. It is, therefore, possible to be spiritually uniform by bringing the delusion, of mind through, knowing, observing and training in the concentration of mind. The spiritual consciousness is the perpetual source of peace and bliss which are desired by all the living beings to be acquired but fail to achieve them. The main object of this book is to present the universal and acceptable elements of vogic practices as per the needs of this era in a simple and easily comprehensible linguistic style. This book has described the exemplary art of awakening and proper channelisation of mind in a scientific way.

The meditation is the main theme of the book. The mind is disciplined through meditation only. That is why, this book has described all the factors leading to control the mind such as

- (1) The role of meditation in the process (2) The subsidiary elements of meditation.
- (3) The capability for undertaking meditation. (4) The proper postures for meditation
- (5) The kinds of support for meditation and others.

The book has described six states like the distracted etc. of mind followed by the discussion of all the steps starting from the purification of mind upto the stage of cessation of activities of mind. This book has also given the knowledge of some self-experienced practices of breathing control which is helpful in getting the mind steady.

In Jainology, the term 'Yoga' has also been stated in terms of the mental, vocal and bodily activities. The use of this meaning is quite popular. That is why, the practice of mental resolves (*pratimās*) and control over senses and the sensed-ones (Samvara) is also more popular in the field of spiritual practices.

According to the Jaina philosophy, there are six power-sources (Completions, Paryāptis) and ten power-centers (Vitalities, Prāṇās) of our life as given below:

(a) Six power-sources (*Paryāptis*)

(1) Food (2) Body (3) Senses (4) Respiration (5) Speech and (6) Mind

(b) Ten Power-centres (*Prāṇās*)

(1) Sense of hearing	(2) Sense of sight
(3) Sense of smell	(4) Sense of taste
(5) Sense of touch	(6) mental strength
(7) Vocal strength	(8) Bodily strength
(9) Respiration	(10) Life-span

It seems that there is cause-effect relation between these two factors. The power-sources are the cause and the power-centres are the effects. When one abridges their numbers, both of them turn equal as below:

Power-Sources	Power-centres
(I)Food	(1) Life-span
(2) Body	(2) Bodily strength
(3) Senses	(3) Senses (five)
(4) Respiration	(4) Respiration
(5) Speech	(5) Vocal strength
(6) Mana	(6) Mental strength

These power-sources and power-centres are there neither in the pure state of consciousness nor in the non-living entities. They are created during the combination of the conscious and the non-conscious entities. All the living beings are in the state of combination of the conscious and non-conscious (mattergy, pudgala). We do not have the realisation of pure consciousness. Hence, we are not in the role of consciousness only. We are enriched with the power of experience and knowledge. Hence, we are also not in the role of the non-conscious only. We are playing the combined role of the consciousness and non-consciousness.

These power-sources and power-centres are the differentiating elements of the $J\bar{t}va$ and Non- $J\bar{t}va$ elements. Those entities are called $J\bar{t}v\bar{a}s$ who have the power of food intake, body structure, sense-structure and respiration. In contrast, there entities are called non- $J\bar{t}v\bar{a}s$ who do not possess those powers.

The power of speech and thinking are not the differentia of the $J\bar{t}va$ but they are the foremost steps for its development.

These power-sources are formed at the time of the beginning of the physical living entity or life. Their activities are the ' $J\bar{v}a$ ' of the living beings.

Now, the question is, "What is the objective of life?" It does not seem that there is any definite objective of life. However, when the living one gets enlightened, one has an objective- and that is liberation (from the weary world). There are two factors for liberation:

(1) Purification and (2) Cessation of activities

When extended, these two factors become twelve in number as below:

(1) Purification (2) Cessation of food intake
(3) Purification of body (4) Cessation of bodily activities
(5) Purification of senses (6) Cessation of sense-activities
(7) Purification of respiration (8) Cessation of respiratory activity.
(9) Purification of speech (10) Cessation of Vocal activities.
(11) Purification of mind (12) Cessation of mental activities.

Thus, the first step is that of purification. When it reaches its end-point, the step of cessation automatically starts.

The cessation (of activities) is the specific component of *Yoga*. The stage of purification does not develop orderly until there is cessation of mental activities etc. The process of purification is easier than cessation. Hence, it does occur easily but its completion comes only when it gets associated with the process of cessation.

There are three components of human activities or Propensities: (1) Wicked Propensity, (2) Virtuous propensity, (3) Desistence from propensity.

The orderly path of spiritual practices involves, first desisting from the wicked propensities and second, moving towards virtuous propensities, and finally, to achieve the path of detachment.

Thus, this text has tried to present the details of the spiritual development of the aspirant in toto and in a scientific way.

22. Jaina Yoga Texts Composed by Ācāryaśrī Mahāprajña

The Jaina scholars, in general, face the problem whether yoga is admitted in the Jaina tradition. Is there any text like 'Yoga-darśana' of Pātañjalī? In order to find a solution to these problems, Ganādhipati Tulasijī

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encouraged the current Ācārya Mahāprajña in his rainy residence at Udaipur in 1962. His main interest lay in the spiritual practices. Ācārya Mahāprajña undertook research into the problem through

- (1) Deep study of canons and scriptures,
- (2) Collection and analysis of factual material from them.
- (3) Determination of the process of scientific study in this area.
- (4) Comparison of scriptural facts with scientific facts.
- (5) Experiment and
- (6) Experience.

On the basis of these points, a refined method of study was developed which is currently known as 'spiritual practice of *Prekṣā dhyāna* (Insight, Introspective or Perception meditation). The complete process of Prekṣā dhyāna is the Jaina yoga. This meditation is the solution of the ancient question. It is also a step towards the journey inward. It begins with the spiritual-indicating point of self-existence, and its foremost point is the scientific and yogic analysis of aura, kundalint and center of consciousness etc.

23. Jaina Yoga

According to Ācārya Mahāprajña, there are two main points of the Jaina yoga- (1) Karmic stoppage or control and (2) Austerities. There are five kinds of control (which are the reverses of five causes of karmic bonding):

(1) Righteousness

(2) Observance of vows
(4) Non-passions (5) Non-activity.

(3) Vigilance

These are the five roles of spiritual practices. The concept of spiritual stages (Gunasthānās) is a developed form of these roles. The meditation is an important component of the yoga of austerity. The meditation forms the beginning, middle and the end of the spiritual practices. The virtuous meditation has been given a new dimension in terms of Preksā dhyāna which is an important chapter of the history of meditation. In brief, it will be suffice to say that the book of Jaina yoga will prove a medium of memorising the forgotten chapters of the Jaina yoga.

Jaina *yoga* consists of four chapters: (1) Background of spiritual practices (2) Roles of spiritual practices (3) The system and its achievement and (4) Experiments and effects. These chapters deal with the different experiments in spiritual practices. There are two appendices in the book which deal deeply with

- (1) Spiritual practices in Ācārāriaga
- (2) Elements of Freksā dhyāna in Ācārānaga.

There is a variety of style and language in this book of 183 pages. Somewhere, there is my stic language and aphorismic style. At other places, there is simple and comprehensible language and expansive style. In some places, there is repetition also to elaborate the contents. There is no rigidity of literary principles of the rules of language and style to make the mystery of meditation as lucid as possible.

24. Cetanā kā Urdhvārohaņa (Ascension of Consciousness)

The level of consciousness is developed through the medium of our body. The consciousness in living being other than human beings flows downwards. It flows downwards the lowest center of consciousness (i.e. gonads). The human can change this downward flow. It can move the consciousness upwards, and carry it towards the center of knowledge or wisdom from its downward flow.

The process of the ascension of consciousness is a defined one. There are some methods in this direction. On knowing them, the human being can move in that upward direction. Bhagavan Mahavira had undertaken an important journey towards the ascension of consciousness. His directions are still very important for the aspirants moving in that direction. This book of 214 pages indicates about them in many places. Though it is not easy to understand symbolic language, still it could be so with proper effort. For understanding this mysticism, the past is unobscured in the present. There is no new postulates in this book, but it is just the un-obscurement of the past.

25. Mahāvīra *kī Sādhanaa kā Rahasya* (The Secret of the Spiritual Practices of Mahāvīra)

Whatever is unknown is all mystery. Similarly, that is also a mystery, which is known but not illustrated in the public. The spiritual practice is a mystery on both these counts. Whatever the formulae of the spiritual practice were known in the days of Mahāvīra, they are not now known in the same way. Hence, they are unknown only. Some formulae for spiritual practice are subjective only. They are, therefore, not known publicly. The present book has touched upon those formulae of spiritual practice, which have come to the level of the known from their level of the unknown and, they are, therefore, useful for all. In the opinion of Ācāryaśrī Mahāprajña, the best medium for memorising Mahāvīra is to become Arhat (Enlightened, Venerable) through meditation upon the Arhat. Alternatively, the secret of spiritual practice is to identify the nature of Arhat by becoming Arhat by oneself.

In the field of spiritual practice, it is very important to control over all the body, respiration, speech and mind. There are some secrets for their control which have been elaborated in the book. The 307-page book Deemed has been divided in four chapters as below:

- (1) Awakening of the soul.
- (2) Realisation of the soul.
- (3) Equanimous meditation or trance
- (4) History of meditation

Thus, Ācārya Mahāprajña has made this subject to be easily learnt by the common man through his simple language and style by presenting the certets of spiritual practice on the basis of self-experience.

26. Apanā Darpaņa: Apanā Bimba (The Mirror of the Self: The Image of the Self)

The etymological meaning of the name of this book is formation of the mirror of the self and seeing the image of the self (in the mirror). The Insight perception is the process of (karmic) shedding so that the old predispositions may be destroyed. The perception is the experiment on controls so that the atoms producing the image may not enter the consciousness. The order of purification and cessation and cessation and purification results in the perception of the image or self-realisation.

The year of Yoga-Ksema (Happiness through Yoga) was a great ritual of thinking and reflections, training and experimenting. On the one hand, there was the presence of our Ācārya, and, on the other, there were hundreds of awakened and wise monks and nuns and, then, there was the public. The thoughtful discussions over the *Prekṣā dhyāna* undertaken before this august assembly, are collected in the book. This book has 240 pages and has a compilation of 35 sermons. It contains valuable material regarding Preksā dhyāna, which encourages us to self-insight through it.

27. Taba Hotā Hai Dhyāna Kā Janma (Meditation is Born, Then)

'Jĥāna-dhyāna' (Meditation-cum-knowledge) is a part of a sentences. The meditation is necessary for right knowledge and the knowledge is necessary for meditation. While they are one with respect to their nature, they are two with respect to their practical processes. There is the mobile part existing in the knowledge

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while there is the non-mobile part in the yoga. The steadiness is not that much easier than non-steadiness. We have the in-born practice of moving with body, speech and mind. But we do not have any practice of moving beyond them. When the 'non-existing' changes into the 'existing or is-ness', the meditation is, then, born.

The moment, when one perceives the attachment behind the body, mind and speech, the meditation state is born.

The non-steadiness has its own problems. Similarly, meditation has also its problems. It is necessary (1) to know the object of meditation, (2) to have proper environment, (3) catching the initial point of meditation, and (4) being doubtless about the effects of meditation.

The biggest problem is to move beyond mind through mind itself. This book could be very useful for consideration of many points related with this problem. There is neither an attempt to go into the death of the problem nor transgression of the directions. It is a middle path. One can move into the depth of meditation by following these directions. This book has 193 pages where in 22 sermons on meditation are also compiled.

Thus, there are about sixty books on meditation composed by Ācārya Mahāprajña. The process of meditation has been analysed scientifically in these books.

It is clear from the above survey that the tradition of Jaina Yoga has been gradually developing from ancient times to modern times. There is a voluminms literature available on this subject- a summary of which has been presented here. QUESTIONS

Essay type questions A.

Describe the main texts of Yoga literature in detail

В. Short answer type questions

- Describe the medieval Yoga literature in brief.
- 3. Discuss the canonical yoga literature in brief.

C. Objective Questions

- Who is the author of Moksa Pāhuda? 4.
- Write down the name of the book on meditation authored by Jinabhadra-Gaṇī. 5.
- The state completely devoid of the knowledge of the self is called 6.
- 7. Which period of Ācārya could be called as 'The Golden Age' ?
- The author of Yoga-Śataka is Ācārya? 8.
- How many aphorisms and chapters are there is Manonuśasanam? 9.
- The period of Ācārya Yaśo-Vijayajī is century?
- 11. The first Ācārya describing the forms of meditation in forms of meditation on objects etc. is?
- The virtuous meditation has been given a new dimension in terms of which is the important chapter of the history of Jaina meditation?
- 13. Who is the Ācārya whose literature on meditation is available in large quantity at present?

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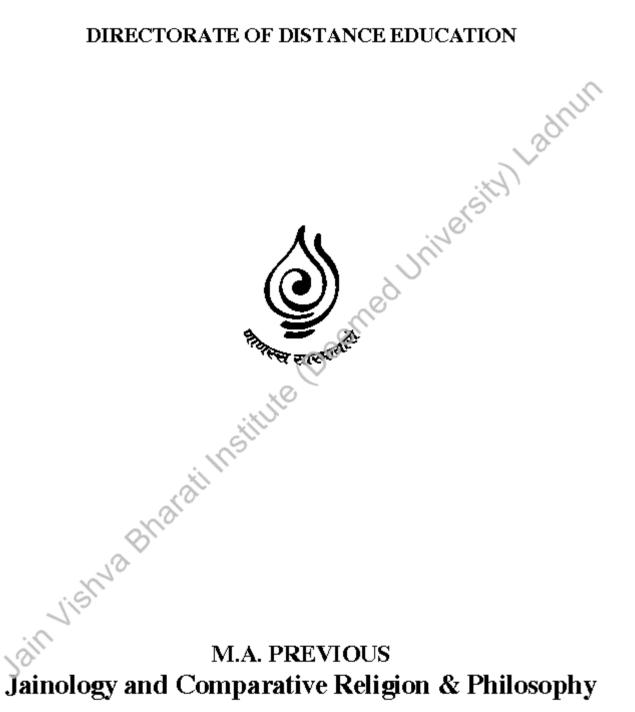
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