THE PHILOSOPHY OF ŚANKARĀCĀRYA —A REAPPRAISAL—

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First of all let me express my sincere gratitude to the authorities of Poona University, particularly to Professor Barlingay, for having given me this opportunity to exchange my thoughts with those of the learned scholars here regarding the philosophy of Sańkarācārya which occupies a unique place in the history of human thought.

The Advaita as propounded by Sankara is as old as the Upanisads and yet it has such a charming freshness about it which attracts the thinkers all over the world. In India itself numerous interpretations of Śankara Vedanta have evolved during the generations of the past. It becomes really difficult. if not impossible, to pinpoint the exact significance of Advaita. Any approach to Advaita may be considered inadequate for that matter. And what is more, there is some strangeness about the Advaita doctrine. On the one hand the Advaita Vedanta of Sankara has been extolled as one of the perfect manifestations of philosophical genius. In the words of Thibaut, "the doctrine advocated by Sankara is, from a purely philosophical point of view and apart from all theological considerations, the most important and interesting one which has arisen on Indian soil." And according to Radhakrishnan, "its austere intellectualism, its remorseless logic, which marches on indifferent to the hopes and beliefs of man, its relative freedom from obsessions, make it a great example of philosophical scheme."2 Tradition honours Sankara's Advaita by comparing it with a lion to be contrasted with other systems of thought which are nothing but jackals as it were.3 On the other hand the Advaita of Sankara has been caricatured to an extent when one begins to suspect whether the caricature itself may not be the reality. Only a few days back during an All India Seminar in philosophy at Viśva Bharati University where I was one of the participants, one scholar remarked that the mayayada of Sankara with its unswerving allegiance to the authority of the Vedas is mainly responsible for the sad plight of Indian philosophy today. The statement of Śankara "Ślokardhena pravaksyami yaduktam granthakotibhih, Brahma satyam jagan mithya ji o brahmaiya nāparah." made perhaps in a lighter vein just like the popular interpretation of Einstein's theory of relativity, has been taken too literally by many. If the whole of Sankara's Advaita can really be summarised in catchwords such as that the world is mithyā or māyā, one can very well imagine to what a ridiculous stature the Acarya is reduced. The poet's remarks in another context, "One word is too often profaned for me to profane it, one thought too falsely disdained for thee to disdain it", can easily be seen to be true of Advaita as of no other philosophy of the past. But is there anything more than this popular interpretation of Advaita? Sometimes people professing to be more serious about Indian philosophy and culture feel dissatisfied with this popular representation of Śańkara and declare that Śańkara has been gravely misunderstood, that there is something deeper, something more subtle, about his philosophy, but when they are asked to pinpoint the exact significance of Advaita they simply flounder, and do not know their way about, lost in an intransigent forest as it were, and what is more, sometimes they also revel in this situation and call it mysticism, wisdom and what not. Plato's remarks concerning the sad plight of philosophy at the hands of its followers are so true also of Advaita Vedanta. "Not that the greatest and most lasting injury is done to her by her opponents, but by her own professing followers."4 There is thus a strangeness about Sankara's Advaita which has attracted the great intellectuals of the past and present while at the same time repelling many, but the situation all along seems to be somewhat as the Bhagavad Gita says; "Aścaryavat paśyati kaścid enam, āścaryavad vadati tathaiva canyah, aścaryavaccainam anyah śrnoti, śrutvapycnam veda na caiva kaścit."

For my part, since my post-graduate days at the University of Allahabad, when I was doing a special study of the

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Advaita Vedanta, when the greatness of Sankara was almost literally being injected into our minds because of the prevalent tradition in that University of A. C. Mukerjee, a name well known and held in a high esteem in the history of Indian philosophy, I have been incessantly worried about the exact significance of Śańkara Vedanta and the value of his contribution. Even now I remember my feeling of dissatisfaction in these days, when I had a chance of going through the original works of Sankara, with the arguments put forward by him in his commentary on the first aphorism of the Brahmasutras in order to establish the self-evident character of the self. "Every one", says Śankara, "is conscious of the existence of his self, and never thinks 'I am not'. If the existence of the self were not known, everyone would think 'I am not'!" His own words in this connection are: "Sarvo hyatmastitvam pratveti, na naham asmiti, vadi hi natma stitvaprasiddhih syat sarvo loko naham asmiti pratiyat". I still remember having raised my doubts regarding the implication of this argument. This very doubt was later on confirmed and it gradually dawned on me that Sankara has been misunderstood by one and all in so far as they have taken him to have discovered some new fact, albeit of a different kind. His was not a factual discovery in the sense in which a scientist may discover some new level of facts for it was not his concern. This I did point out, through a linguistic analysis of certain statements of Sankara, in my paper "Doctrine of self in Absolute Idealism (An Examination of the views of Śankara and Bradley)" which was read before the Cuttack session of All India Philosophical Congress. Even the argument for the undeniability of the self, when Sankara argues for example that the self cannot be denied because it is the very self of the denier (Atmanas ca pratyakhyatum asakyatvat, ya eva nirākartā tasyaivātmatvāt) is some-what queer and has a certain deceptiveness about it like the cartesian "cogito ergo sum", although this is the very argument which was made much of by Professor A. C. Mukerjee in his Nature of Self. That this does not prove the existence of an immutable self, that this does not point to any indubitable fact except in a trivial sense is what occurred to me even long before I got

acquainted with the Ayerian criticism of the "Cogito" and this constitutes the subject matter of my above mentioned paper. To put it in the language of Ayer, what Śaṅkara "thought that he had shown was that the statements that he was conscious, and that he existed, were somehow privileged, that for him at least, they were evidently true in a way which distinguished them from any other statements of fact. But this by no means follows from his argument. His argument does not prove that he, or any one, knows anything.......It is of interest only as drawing attention to the fact that these are sentences which are used in such a way that if the person who employs them ever raises the question whether the statements which they express are true, the answer must be yes. But this does not show that these statements are in any way sacrosanct, considered in themselves."⁵

But now very naturally the question comes to the mind-Is that all about Sankara? And in that case, where does his greatness lie? Perhaps, it may be said, he is simply a mediocre on whom greatness has been unduly thrust or his philosophy is too great to have been properly understood or appreciated by any of us. How to decide? What is the criterion? The first alternative is no doubt difficult to swallow, but at the same time a sort of mystifying greatness also will not do. During all these years when I have gradually matured due to my association with the great thinkers of both the present and the past it has throughout been a cause of genuine worry to me and I cannot say that even now I have comprehended the real significance of the writings of the Acarya. For one thing, his style though lucid and not very difficult to understand leaves so many issues undecided and as open questions. It is in this background that one can understand how philosophers of very different and even sometimes antagonistic outlook have professed their allegiance to the master. Padmapāda, Sureśvara, and Vācaspati are as different in their approach from one another as philosophers can be and yet they all acknowledge Sankara as their guide. Sankara's Philosophy has been interpreted both as a grand system of metaphysics and also as anti-metaphysical in character. It is not for nothing again that some have read nihilishm between

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the lines of Śaṅkara. His writings are no less open to an interpretation from the standpoint of value, or even from the existentialist point of view. Recently an interpretation from the linguistic stand-point has also been attempted on Śaṅkara.

I do not know whether this is a sign greatness, whether, as Potter says, "the greatness of a piece of writing, be it philosophical or literary, is proportionate to the number of different meaningful interpretations which can be found to be consistent with the text"7 But this surely testified to the highly thought-provoking and richly suggestive character of the writings of Sankara. He seems to leave many things to be filled up by our own imagination and that is why it makes the task of anyone who is keen to be true to the significance of his writings, without colouring them by his own ideas, a very challenging one. In what follows, I shall try my best to strictly adhere to the original writings of Sankara, as far as possible so as to find out the real significance of his thoughts, but I cannot guarantee that some of my own ideas, belonging to a much later generation as I am, may not colour my description and evalution of Advaita, and I hope to be excused for any such un-intentional transgression on my part. At least, I may hope that my work will be of interest as a fresh approach to the philosophy of Sankara.

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The Concept of Liberation

Almost all sysyems of Indian philosophy as is well known consider moksa or liberation to be the ultimate end of human existence. It is considered to be the nihśrey sa i.e. the highest good as distinguished from the abhyudaya i.e. the worldly prosperity. It is called by different names in different systems of Indian philosophy, e.g. moksa, apavarga and kaivalya. Like other Indian philosophers Śańkara also concerns himself with this question of liberation. He starts his commentary on the Brahmasūtra with a description of avidya or adhyasa only because through its destruction moksa can be realised. His Upadeśasāhasri begins with an explanation of the method of instructing the means to liberation. His opening

words run as follows: "Atha moksasadhanopadesavidhim vyākhyāsyāmo mumuksunām śraddadhānānām arthinām arthāya." All this shows what the primary concern of the Acarya as a philosopher was. Considering the general trend of the Indian Philosophy and philosophers this of course is nothing new of startling. But the conception of liberation which we find in the writings of Acarya is undoubtedly unique in the history of Indian philosophy, next only perhaps to that of Yajñavalkya in the Brhadaranyaka Upanisad. Yajñavalkya's conception of liberation however requires much of excavation work before it can be rightly grasped and I have tried to do some of this work myself in my presidential address for the History of philosophy section of the Indian philosophical congress to be held at Kanpurthis year. 10 But what Yanjavalkya wanted to hint at during the age of the Upanisads was firmly grasped and unerringly pointed out in very clear terms by the Acarya alone whe therefore may in this sense be regarded as a true heir of the Upanisadic tradition. Liberation all along throughout the history of Indian philosophy, barring certain exceptions, has been regarded as a sort of ideal and covetable state to be attained hereafter either through action, devotion or knowledge. Some have taken it to be a state of bliss while some others take it to be a state where there is cessation of all sufferings (cf. Samkhya-Sūtra,11 atha trividhaduh|khatyantanivrttiratynta-purusarthah). Some Indian thinkers have taken it to be a sort of spiritual, religious, goal where the individual spirit is united with the universal self or the Jivatma is in communion with the God. Some other thinkers consider it to be a state of isolation (kaivalya) for the self when the self gets dissociated from the clutches of Prakrti as it were. But howsoever it may have been conceived it is a state to be attained, or better the highest value to be realised, by us through our work, religious devotion, or right knowledge. Even knowledge is supposed to be a mere means for the attainment of this practical goal. Indian philosophy is thus distinguished as being practically orientated from the philosophies of the West which pursue knowledge for the sake of knowledge and are therefore considered theoretical. Indian philosophy is either condemned or extolled

mainly on this ground according as it suits one's purpose. But this emphasis on the practical character of Indian thought, though not entirely baseless, is due to a lack of proper to appreciation of Sankara's contribution to Indian thought. Sankara is emphatic on the point that philosophy is concerned with moksa only in the sense of Brahmajña a which is vastutantra, that is it must be in accordance with the thing as it is, not with dharma which is a practical goal to be attained by our personal efforts through some practical guidance (Purusa-vyāpāra-tantra and codanā-tantra). Jñāna which is the proper concern of Philosophy has an inexorable character about it which is lacking in any practically orientated study (na vastuyāthātmyajñānam purusabuddhyapeksam, purusādhinātmavābhāc ca kartavvasva, kartumakartum anyathā vā kartum sakyam laukikam vaidikam ca karma. Jnanam tu pramāna-janyam, pramānam ca yathābhūtvastuvisayam, ato Jñānam kartumakartum anyathā vā kartum asakvam). Sankara's concern for liberation thus is reduced to his emphasis on Jñana. Moksaśastra or Philosophy is concerned wtih what is and not with what ought to be performed, with Brahman, which is bhūtavastu as distinguished from dharma which is bhavya. Śankara's most significaint contribution thus lies in giving a theoretical, philosophical, turn to the practically orientated conception of moksa. He for the first time teaches that liberation is not a state to be attained or achieved, that it is neither heva nor upadeva (ahevanupadevavastuvisayatvāt), that it is natural (svābhāvika) and unchangeably eternal (kūtasthanitya).. No specific type of activity or devotional practice is needed to attain liberation, for it is not the result of any activity or devotion (Tasmāj jñānanm ekam muktvā kriyāyā gandhamātrasyāpy anupraveśa iha nopapadyate)

Brahmajñāna, knowledge of Brahman, even is not a means for liberation in any ordinary sense according to Śańkara for jñāna itself is liberation. Brahmabhāvas ca mokṣaḥ, Śańkara tells us, and "Brahma veda brahmaiva bhavati" is quoted by him in support of his view that there is no gap between Brahmavidyā and mokṣa. It has often been misunderstood that according to Śańkara, jñāna is a mere means of

liberation. But it is more appropriate to say that liberation, according to Sankara, is nothing but inana or illumination. Śrutayo Brahmavidyanantaram moksam darśayantyo madhya kāryantaram varayanti, as Sankara would tell in his commentary on Brahmasūtra, I.I.4. It is true that at places Śańkara speaks of jñana as a means to liberation e.g. when he says "Nihśreyasaphalam tu brahmavijnanam" in his commentary on Brahmasūtra I.I.1 or when he says "moksasādhanam jñānam" in Upadesasahasri. But there it should be taken as a mere concession to the popular way of expressing the idea and moreover the context in which such statements are made should never be lost sight of. In the Upadesasahasri for example iñana as an instrument of moksa can only mean the bookish knowledge of Brahman or Vakyad vakyarthajñana obtained through Śravna only which is to be firmly entrenched in the mind of the listener through manana and nididhyasana finally culminating in Brahmajñana in the sense of Brahmavagati or the full comprehension of Brahman. Tadidam moksasādhanam jñanam..... tyaktaputravittalokaisanaya pratipannaparamahamsa pariyrajyayavidhiyad upasannaya sisyaya..... pariksitāya brūyāt punah punah yāvadgrahanam drdhibhavati, says. Sankara in that very context, or as is wellknown, "Srotavyo śrutivakyebhyo mantavyaś copapattibhih, matva ca satatam dhyeyah ete darsanahetavah." And in the commentary on first sūtra "Athāto Brahmajijnāsā" Sankara being primarily interested in showing the difference in fruits of dharmajiñasa and Brahmajuñāsā naturally talks of moksa or nihsieyas as the fruit of Brahmajñana, just to contrast it with abhyudaya or worldly prosperity which is the fruit of dharmaiñana. As a matter of fact however, there is nothing more to be aspired for beyond Brahmajñana, be it a vaikuntha, a state of kaivalya, ananda (bliss) or nirvana (extinction). Illumination or jñana is freedom and it itself is bliss or ananda. Where jaana is used in Sankara Vedanta as a mere means or pramana for Brahmavagati as for example when Sankar says inanena hi pramanena avagantum istam brahma, there jñana to my mind should be taken as a mere word to word, bookish, understanding of Brahman from the sastra i.e. vakyadvakyartha iñana. In that sense alone, Brahmaiñana and Brahmavagati can be distinguished from each other, for otherwise jñana in the sense of aparokṣa jñana is certainly indistinguishable from avagati, and brahmāvagati or jñana in this context should mean an immediate and full comprehension of the nature of Brahman which constitutes the puruṣartha or the end of man and is identical with mokṣa or liberation (Brahmāvagatir hi puruṣarthaḥ).

Now the question naturally arises, what exactly is the nature of Brahmavagati which is identical with moksa and constitutes the purusartha? At another place Sankara speaks of Brahmajñana culminating in anubhava (Anubhavavasanatvat Brahmajñanasya). Vacaspati takes both anubhava and avagati to mean sāksātkāra.11 But is it Brahmasāksātkāra sense of a sort of mystical vision of a being called Brahman? This seems to be the popular notion prevalent in the history of Indian thought. Radhakrishnan for example speaks of anubhava as an intuitional consciousness.12 Thibaut also translates anubhava as intailion. But I fail to see why the words avagati and anubhava used by Sankara or even saksatkara of Vacaspati be interpreted to mean a sort of direct perception through a third eye (Divya Drsti) as it were. It is simply due to the misconception of Brahman as a sort of supramundane object to be known only through an intuitive mystic experience. But Śankara's Brahman, it should be borne in mind, is not at all an object, whether mundane or supramundane. It is avisayantahpati. The distinction drawn by Sankara between mere iñana and avagati or anubhava of Brahman can be properly understood not by reference to mystic intuition over and above the ordinary understanding of objects but by bearing in mind that Sankara was distinquishing between mere understanding of the meaning of the Sruti passages (ie. mere book-learning) and the full comprehension of their import culminating in an immediate apprehension of the truth. That is how one can understand his condemnation of the Vidvas (one who knows) one who is learned in the Vedanta (vedanta-nayantadarsin) as he calls him) in Vivekacudamani¹³, while in another sense vidyas may also refer to aBrahmajnaina in the sense of one who has Brahmanubhava, for example when he speaks of vidusah

sarvpravrttyasambandhah in his commentary on Brahmasūtras I. I. 4. It is of course true that Sankara himself speaks of Brahmadarsana on certain occasions which one may be inclined to take in the sense of mystic vision of Brahman, as for example when he says in his commentary on Brahmasutra, I. I. 4. "Bramadarsana-sarvatmabhavayormadhye karyantaravaranaya". But we have not to forget that Sankara takes the Upansadic passages like "Yatra tvasya sarvamatmaivabhut tatra kenakam pasyet kena kam vajaniyat" very seriously and therefore Brahmadarsana here can only be taken to mean an immediate apprehension and full realisation of the truth, and this realisation or comprehension is attained according to Sankara not by any intuition but by the consideration of the meaning of the Vedantic statements or vakyarthavicarana as Sankara would have it. For, to say that somebody knew something by intuition is, as Ayer would let us know, "to assert no more than that did know it, but that we could not say how... Words like 'intuition...' are brought in just to disguise the fact that no explanation has been found."14 Sankara far from being mystical in his approach to Brahmavagati states in clear terms that the comprehension of Brahman is effected by the ascertainment, consequent on discussion, of the sense of the Vedanta statements, not either by inference or by other means of rihgt knowledge (Vakyarhavicaranadhyavasananirvrtta hi brahmavagati nanumanadi pramanantaranirvrtta). The significance of these remarks of Sankara to my mind have have not been properly understood and assessed, for the proper understanding of this statement of Sankara should dispel once and for all the illusion that Sankara is a mystic philosopher talking of a sort of supramundane reality to be known by intuition. That Sankara here is drawing our attention to the philosophical enlightenment which can be only obtained through an analysis of the function of language can easily be seen once we get rid of the deep-seated misconception on Sankara as a mystic philosopher. The emphasis on vākyārtha vicāraņa is to my mind an emphasis on linguistic analysis as a means of philosophical enlightement called Brahmāvagati which liberates us.

A sort of picture thinking is associated with any form of

mysticism or a metaphysical system traced on speculation. That Sankara was dead against any such speculative metaphysics is evident from the fact that he frivolously deals with different metaphysical systems of his time and sometimes one wonders how he chooses the analogies and examples that are better suited to either parinama doctrine or the lila theory of creation with which he has no geniune sympathy with a view only to refuting the speculative systems of his opponents. For example, he in his commentry on "Lokavattu lilakaivalyam" in Barhamasutras 2. 1.33 speaks of the world as being created by Brahman in sport as it were and compares it with the sport of a king whose desires are all fulfilled. He gives the examples of the unconscious hair and nails growing on the body of conscious human beings in his commentary on the aphorism "Drsyate tu" in Brahmasutras, 2.1.6. The way he speaks of the spontaneous transformation of milk to curd or of water to ice just to explain how the aidless Brahman can be the cause of the world in his commentary on Brahmasutras 2.1.24 can only be understood if we bear in mind that he was simply setting one system of speculative metaphysics against another, viz. that of Sankhya, just to point out how different self-consistent metaphlesical systems can be made inteligibey on the basis of different assumptions, and that is why there was no sufficient reason according to him why any system of metaphysics be considered superiror to the other. It is true that he had a greater sympathy with the theory according to which an intelligent creator i.e. Brahman is both an efficient and material cause of the world (Abhinnanimitta upadana karana) on the basis of which he refuted other systems of speculative metaphysics like that of Samkya and Vaisesika. But this sympathy with Brahma-karanavada, with the theory of Brahman as the cause of the world, lasted with him so long as he could criticise other systems of speculative metaphysics on its basis and find internal inconsistencies of those systems. But when the internal consistiency of Brahma-karana-vada itself was in question we find in almost all cases two distinct strands of thought in him. He wants to prove that there is no inconisistency in the Vedanta philosophy, na hi asmakam

darśane kincid api asamanjasym asti or anatiśankaniyam idam aupanisadam darsanam as he tells us, by taking resort, at first and as it appears to me playfully, to certain examples and analogies as against the counter-examples of the opponents as is evident for example from what he does in his commentary on Brahmas tras 2.1.13. Here he tries to show that the ordinary distinctions between the enjoyers and the objects of enjoyment do not vanish altogether even if the world is nondifferent from Brahman just as the waves, forams, and bubbes etc. do not pass over into each other although they are non-different from the seawater. But this is only a half-hearted attempt on his part to defend his philosophy as against the attacks of his opponents. It is as if Sankara declares in a lighter vein-If you can cite examples and give analogies from the empirical world to prove your system of speculative metaphysics to be the most valid one, I can cite as many counter examples and may give as many counter analogies to prove Brahma-kārana-vāda. But that is not all. There is always a second and a more significant strand of thought in Sankara. And this comes to our view when we find him, in the face of his opponents, switching over to what is well known as his paramarthika viewpoint, i.e. his genuine philosophic stand, when, for example, he propounds the theory of Brahman as the only reality, leaving no scope for Brahmakaranavada or any speculation for that matter about the orgination of the world, be it from Brahman or from some other source.15 That may be regarded as the Brahma-Vada of Sankara This knowledge of Brahman which Sankara propounds as the highest knowledge is arrived at by looking into how different varieties of language function, not by searching in the empiricial world for examples supporting a system of speculative metaphysics. Śańkara's Brahmavada is no doubt based on certain assumptions of his own as will be evident in the sequel, but it is definitely not a system of speculative metaphysics or mystic thought. Potter's following remarks about the Advaita of today are true of the master's own writings more than of any one else:-"As Advaita develops there is a growing awareness that the only proper function of the philosopher's tools is the production of greater maturity - greater

readiness for freedom-by the use of negative dialectic and subtle readings of the scriptures. Positive theories or systems become passe. With this development Advaita begins to take on the look that it has come to have today, that of an eschewal of systematic philosophy rather than an espousal of it".16 But to me it appears that it is Sankara himself rather than any one else in particular belonging to his camp who is responsible for this eschewal of systematic philosophy rather than an espousal of it. The search for absolute certainty in knowledge which Sankara puts in an ontological mode of speech as a search for the reality which is never sublated in past, present, and future (Trikalabadhita) 17 makes him arrive at Brahmajñana as the highest form of knowledge through an analysis of language which is intended to make us free from the jungle of words, sabdajalam maharanyam cittabhramanakaranam as Sankara would say, 18 and the illusion of differences (bheda) created by them. It is only in the light of what has been stated above can one understand the exact significance of Sankara's criticism of tarka in his commentary on the Brahmasūtras 2 1 11. To my mind it appears that Sankara here is only criticising tarka in the sense of speculation or metaphysical logic leading to the establishment of a speculative metaphysical system. His own words in this context are very significant indeed. Niragamah purusotpreksamatranibandhanās tarkā apratisthitā bhavanti, utpreksāyā niran kusatvat, says Sankara. Utpreksa therefore or bare speculation. looking up as it were in imagination (Utpreksana), not reasoning, which is being denounced, here. Sankara very clearly points to the controversial and inconclusive nature of such metaphysical reasoning, or Tarkajñana as he calls it, leading to diverse rival systems of metaphysics as distinguished from what he calls samyak jñana which never fails.19 This clearly shows what according to Sankara is the aim of philosophy or philosophical knowledge. Phisosophical knowledge must give us absolute certainty and the before it can only concern itself with that which never changes. This one can not get through speculation about the origin of the world or something of the sort but only through vakyarthavcarana. The remarks of Wittgenstein in another context may not be

quite in appropriate even here. "A picture held us captive and we could not get outside of it"." We certainly cannot get out of it by setting up a rival picture but may hope to get out through an analysis of how language functions, that is through linguistic analysis or vakyarthavicarana.

III

The significance of vakyarthavicarana

What then are we to understand by vākyārthavicāraņā, the consideration of the meaning of the statements. It is of course the Vedantic statements that are meant to be analysed here because Sankara's immediatey preceding statement runs as follows: Vedantavākyāni hi sūtrair udahrtya vicarvante. Brahmajñana which constitutes the highest end cannot obtained either through speculation, perception or inference. are we then to understand that a mere study of the Vadanta scriptures will give us that knowledge? Sankara seems to favour the idea of sastra being the source of the knowledge of Brahman. His remarks like śāstrā-deva pramāņāt jagato janmādi kāranam Brahmādhigamyate, sabdamulam ca brahma sabda pramanakam nendriyadipramanakam tad yatha sabdam abhyupagantavyam, Agamamatrasamadhigamyan eva tu ayam artah, Tattvajñanam in vedantavakyebhya eva bhavati, Agamavaseva agamanusari tarkavasena ca etc. seem to betray him as an authoritarian philosopher beleving in the supremacy of authority over independent reasoning. And this exactly is how he has been taken by most of his successors, the only difference of opinion being there about the relative position of authority and reasoning in Sankara. Scholars go on arguing whether reasoning has any significant role to play in his system at all. As Śańkara is somehow supposed to be a great philosopher, he is just allowed to escape by a sympathetic remark that according to him reasoning is not entirely useless, it has only a subordinate position to authority, being permitted to remain as a handmaid of sruti. But this can at best mean a pyrrhic victory for Sankara the philosopher and nothing more, for once we take such a stand he can no longer be considered a free thinker, and then the question will be only to determine the degree and extent to which he was authorita-IPO....5

rian, that is, to find out how much of his philosophy was fettered by the tradition. But to my mind it appears that Sankara was not at all authoritarian in his outlook. It is true that he refers to sruti passages from time to time and explicitly states that śrutyavagahyam avedam atigambhiram brahma na tarkavagahyam. But he can at the worst be said to have an ambivalent attitude towards sruti. And 'ambivalent' of course is not the proper word for his attitude, for it should be noted that throughout his work he uses the words sruti, agama and sabda in two different senses without making them explicit because of which there is a scope for lot of confusion. In one sense of the word whatever is said in sruti is evidently not acceptable to him as such. This is the sense in which Sruti is taken as authority, a group of revealed texts coming down to us from time immemorial. In this sense of authority whereever Sruti comes to clash with other means of valid knowledge he suggests that it be taken in a secondary sense." This explicity shows that Sruti in the sense of authority is merely subordinate to other means of valid knowledge according to Sankara. But there is another sense in which struti alone can give us that enlightenment which is called moksa or liberation. Sruti in this sense is a critical study of different forms and functions of language. Sankara speaks of different types of language such as vidhi vākyas or sentences concerned with codanā inducing one to activity, samsargāvagāhi vākvas which are relational and judgemental in character, and akhandarthaka vakyas or identity-statements. In this context the vedantic statements are taken for consideration with a view to be enlightened and this critical study is said to be agamanusari tarka that is reasoning following the logic of language as it comes to us from time immemorial. That it need not necessarily be a critical study of the language of the Vedas and the Upanisads, that even a study of ordinary language makes us see the same truth is evident from the fact that a similar linguistic analysis is made in Vedanta of such secular statements like soyam Devadattah, dasamas tvamasi etc. to draw our attention to the same truth. The upanisadic statements as also such secular statements are approached with the same end in view, i.e. for distinguishing between the referring and

the descriptive use of language so that one can arrive at absolute certainty by concentrating on the statements that refer only without describing and thereby liberate oneself from the vicissitudes (samsara) associated with the descriptive use of language. Vakyarthavicarana thus in the context of Sankara means a consideration of the Vedantic statements by which we distinguish the prescriptive and even the descriptive statements from identity statements such as Tat tvam asi which without any description simply refer or point to the reality thereby giving us absolute certainty. From the standpoint of absolute certainty attained through tat tvam asi the multiplicity created by the descriptive language is said to be based on ignorance. Thus it is not merely the understanding of the explicit meaning of any sentence of the scriptures that gives us enlightenment. Vakyartha ultimately comes to mahavākyārtha and vicāranā is a critical study where we take into consideration not only the explicit meaning but also the implicit significance of a statement, not merely vakyartha but also the laksyartha is considered. All the statements of the Upanisads are not of the same status. Whenever scriptural passages speak of creation in detail or of Brahmaparinama with all its paraphernalia their actual purport according to Sankara is something quite different from what they explicitly stand for. After defending Brahmaparinama with the help of the analogy of milk etc. being transformed to curd etc. in his commentary on Brahmasūtra 2.1.25, after explicitly stating that Brahma ksirādivad deva divāc canāpaksva bāhvasādhanam svayam parinamamanam jagatah karanam iti sthitam, when he is confronted with a dilemma of krtsnaprasakti (scope for the entire Brahman being transformed) on the one hand and niravayavatasabdakopa (violation of the scripture declaring Brahman to be partless) on the other, he finally takes resort to his genuine philosophical stand and speaks of Brahamaparinama as avidyākalpita or a creation of nescience. All such scriptural passages speaking of parinama are significant according to him only in so far as they make us realise the non-dual self or the identity of the Brahman and the Atman which alone makes us free. To put it in his own words: Na ceyam parināmasrutih parināmapratipādanārthā, tatprati68 G. C, Nayak

pattau pha'anavagamat, sarvavyvaharahinabrahmatmabhavapratipādanārthā tvesā tatpratipattau phalavagamāt. This of course they cannot do by themselves but through the help of other scriptural statements like "Sa esa neti nety ātmā (not this, not this)", "Tat tvam asi" etc. The identity-statements therefore have a privileged status in Śańkara Vedanta so far as Brahmanubhava is concerned. They are called akhandarthaka vākyas to be contrasted with the samsargāvagāhi-vākyas, though relational in form they simply point to an identity of meaning of the expressions used (anyonya-tadatmya). As Sankara says in his Vakyavrtti, "Samsargo va visisto va vākyārtho nātra sammatah, akhandaikarasatvena vākyārtho vidusām matah". The direct meanings of the words 'Thou' and 'That' for example in the statement 'Thou art That' being mutually incompataible, Sankara suggests that bhaga-laksana should be adopted for the proper understanding of this statement. 'Thou' directly signifies Svetaketu who is consciousness connected with the internal organ and is also an object of the idea and word 'I'. 'That' on the other hand directly signifies the omniscient Being having maya as its upadi who is the cause of the universe and is mediately known. There is thus an apparent contradiction here. The true meaning of the statement is reached only by sublating these differences and arriving at an indivisible meaning (akhandartha). Here language is used in such a way that in the process language is lost as it were, for the only function that is left for it is to point at or gesture towards the fact without giving any information about it. It is an approximation towards speechlessness, and is therefore free from incompleteness and uncercertainty which are the characteristics of a descriptive language. It is language that creates multiplicity, vacarambhana as Aruni of Chandogya fame puts it, for certain practical purposes and when we get rid of these multiple forms created by language through an analysis of the meaning of the mahavākyas like Tat tvam asi we realise the advaita or non-duality, the unity of all existence, whose knowledge alone is absolutely certain and self-complete.

But²² as professor Ayer would point out to us, security thus attained is sterile. "Philosophers", says Ayer, "have

been attracted by the idea of a purely demonstrative use of words because they have wanted to make the best of both worlds. They have sought as it were to merge their language with the facts it was supposed to picture; to treat its signs as symbols, and yet bestow upon them the solidity which belongs to the facts themselves, the facts being simply there without any question of doubt or error arising. But these aims are incompatible. Purely demonstrative expressions are in their way secure; but only because the information which they give is vanishingly small. They point to something that is going on, but they do not tell us what it is."23 This criticism of Ayer is alright as far as it goes, and it can also be of immense value as a criticism of the Advaita in so far as it is mistaken to be a type of speculative metaphysics giving us important informations about a world of reality beside the empirical world which all of us know. But it has little force, it may be said, when applied in the prosent context, for the Tattvam asi here is not meant to be informative at all in the sense in which ordinary languae is so. There is thus no question here of trying to make the best of both the worlds. The aim of the philosopher here is to attain a knowledge which is self-complete and absolutely certain, and the knowledge of advaita or the unity of all existence obtained through tat tvam asi seems to fulfil these demands satisfactorily. Nor can Sankara be taken to task for having only pointed through Tat tvam asi to the nondual reality without giving any particular informations about it, for merely saying that it exists without saying what it is, for this precisely is what he is interested in and what can possibly be achteved in this context. Any knowledge other than what we derive from Tat tvam asi through vakyarthavicarana is incomplete and insecure.

But the charge of sterility is still here, it may be said, and there is the further question whether the knowledge obtained through **Tat tvam asi** by vākyārthavicāraṇā is **knowledge** at all? Far from being complete knowledge it seems to run the risk of losing the title of knowledge altogether. In the Chāndogya Upaniṣad Śvetaketu after hearing the instruction of his father is said to have known the reality. Taddhāsya vijajnāviti, says the Chāndogya. Śankara while commenting on this uses

vijnatavan. But the question is whether Sankara can meaningfully speak of vijnatavan or vijajnau as the Chandogya would have it in this context. Can Svetaketu strictly speaking be said to have known? The question here is whether an indeterminate apprehension can be taken to be a case of knowledge If knowledge means knowledge through concepts the possibility of there being an indeterminate, unconceptualised knowledge is ruled out at the outset. It seems queer that someone be said to have knowledge while at the same time being not in a position to tell what it is that he knows. But whatever may be the problem in taking nirvikalpaka as knowledge, there is no such corresponding difficulty in regarding it as a kind of jñana. For the Sanskrit word 'jñana' seems to have a wider connotation than its supposed equivalent, 'knowledge', in English; in fact, 'jnana' is used as a synomym of 'buddhi' and upalabdhi in the Nyāya Sūtras of Gautama". If jñāna is taken in the sense of upalabdhi or awareness nirvikalpaka or nisprakāraka jñāna or awareness of something not characterised in any way will not be a logical impossibility even if indeterminate unconceptualised knowledge would be logically impossible in so far as knowledge is taken in a strict sense to imply knowledge through concepts.25 I am therefore to conclude that there is nothing wrong in Sankara using the term vijnatavan or the Upanisad speaking of vijajnau in the context of the realisation of the non-dual reality by Svetaketu, whereas it will be wrong if the English equivalent 'knowledge' is substututed in its place. We may speak of Brahmaiñana or Brahmanubhava but not of the knowledge of Brahman.26 When this is understood, the further question whether such a jñana (not knowledge) of which Sankara talks is sterile or not is of comparatively lesser importance from the philosophical standpoint, and more a matter of opinion than anything else, for it will depend on the value one attaches to it. Uniformative it definitely is, and what is more, it cannot profess to be informative in the sense in which our ordinary empirical judgments concerning matters-of-fact are. It is viiñana in the sense of realisation or awareness and it makes little sense to speak of such awareness going wrong or being doubtful which, properly speaking, can only be applied to

statements If I desist from making a statement, how can I go wrong? It is this peculiar immunity from error and uncertainty which makes it covetable from one standpoint while making it appear sterile from another 27

IV

The Riddle of Maya and Avidya-A solution

In this context it may not be out of place to say a few words on the famous doctrine of maya of the Acarva. This doctrine has been a source of great confusion in the history of Indian philosophy and also a source of amusement for the layman, and yet it is my humble opinion that the significance of mayavada has been seriously misunderstood by a number of scholars as also laymen so far as māyā has been taken as an explanatory theory propounded to explain the orgination of the universe from the Brahman and consequantly Sankara has been accused of intellectual dishonesty in trying to hide his ignorance by the blanket term mava. One of the great Vedantins of this century. Raadhakrishnan even, seems to have mistaken maya to be an explanatory theory and consequently finds fault with it "The theory of maya," says Radhakrishnan, "serves as a cloak to cover the inner rifts of his system" 29 But to me it appars that this is due to a complete misunderstanding of the programme of Sankara. was not interested in giving an explanation of the origin of others have got nothing to do with costhe universe. mology or cosmogony "The Vedanta", says prof. Dasgupta. another scholar of eminence, "is both unwilling and incapable of explaining the nature of the world-process in all its details, in which philosophy and science are equally interested" 29 But this again is due to a misdirected approach to the philosophy of Sankaracarya, and this mistake of course is quite natural in view of the fact that Sankara was the first and the only philosopher to have realised that it is not the proper business of philosophers to explain the nature of the worldprocess in all its details and to revel in theories concerning how it all came about. The question therefore of his unwillingness or incapability for explaining the world-process does not arise, for he considered the whole thing to be philosophically irrelevant. In his Aitareya Bhasya, Sankara explicitly states that different theories of creation are to be taken as mere anecdotes and stories (ākhyāyikā), and are therefore to be taken only as arthavada. He very lightly disposes of the objection raised by the imaginary opponent (purvapaksa) regarding certain point in the theory of creation propounded in the scripture on the ground that all other details of creation are also as disputable as the point in question. The Sruti asserts that Brahman after creating the world in all its details entered into the body through the head (Sa etam eva simanam vidarya etaya dvārā prapadyata) and the opponent finds this idea not very easy to digest for it makes Brahman appear like an ant entering into a hole as it were, to which Sankara says that there is no point in dilating only on this issue when all other details in the theory of creation propounded by the scripture are equally open to question. All this is not nonsense (anupapanna) however, for the intention of the scripture here is merely to make us realise the Atman, says Sankara, and we are asked not to take these anecdotes seriously. Ācārya's own words in this context are very illuminating indeed:-" Sarvagatasya sarvatmano valagramatramapravistam nastiti katham simanam vidarya prapadyata pipilikeva susiram

Nanu atyalpamidam eodyam bahu cātra codayitavyam. Akaranah sanniksta, anupādaya kincidlokānasrjata, adbhyah puruṣam samuddhṛtya murchhayat, tasyabhidhyānān mukhādi nirbhinnam, mukhādi-bhyaṣcāgnyādayo lokapalastesam cāśanāyāpipāsadisamyojanam.....etat sarvam simavidaranapravesasamameva

Astu tarhi sarvam evedam anupapannam.

Na, atrātmāvabodhamātrasya vivakṣitatvāt sarvasyam arthavāda ityadoṣaḥ na hi ṣratyākhyāyikādi parijnanat kincit phalam iṣyate". All this shows that according to Sankara philosophy is entirely neutral to any theory of creation and has got nothing to do with an explanation of the world process in all its details. So there was no question in Sankara of giving or trying to give an explanation of the origin of universe through māyā. When māyā was not meant to be a theory of explanation,

the question of its adequacy as a theory does not arise. True, if it were meant to be a theory it would be one of the worst theories of all, for instead of explaining it simply shifts the problem from the mystery of creation to the mystery of the creator. It is of course true that Sankara at many places speaks of maya as a power of the Lord. 30 But this to my mind is simply a concession on the part of Sankara to the popular opinion and nothing more, for the entire conception according to Sankara is avidvakalpita and is therefore to be taken only as lokavyvahāra. It is Śańkara's view that even the Lord depends as Lord upon the limiting adjuncts of name and form, the product of nescience.31 When the conception of the Lord itself has its basis in ignorance then the ascription of maya to the Lord as his sakti can simply be based on ignorance also. It is the descriptive language which is practically orientated and creates multiplicity where there is a nondual reality. Adhyasa or avidya consists in this confusion of taking the one nondual reality as many.32 Ignorance of how language creates some thing where it is not, makes us involved in the multiplicity which has its orgin in speech only.33 Our practical life however is dependent on such a use of language and is therefore called vyāvahārika.34 Vyāvahārika is not nothing, it is practically useful. We classify, discriminate, and categorise for our own practical convenience; the nondual reality however simply remains untouched by all this. (Yatra yadadhyāsah tat krtena dosena gunena và anumatrenapi sa na sambadhyate). Ignorance of this nondual reality is all-pervasive and affects one and all, as Śańkara says, "vyutpattimatam api purusānām pratyaksādivyavhāras tatikālah samānah,,' and this universality of ignorance is at times pointed out by Śańkara through the terminology of maya. For example, Sankara in his commentray on Kathopanisad speaks of maya as very deep-rooted, incomprehensible, and strange only in the sense that everybody though identical with the ultimate reality is ignorant of such identity.35 The fact that every one sees multiplicity where there is unity, is deceived by varieties of linguistic forms, is called maya. The further question such as-To whom in particular does this maya belong or wherefrom does it originate? -is not philosophically significant.

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The answer to the question whether maya is identical with avidva or different from it again should be very simple from the standpoint of Sankara although it is a fact that the later Sankarites have raised a storm over this issue. When we concentrate on the ignorance or error of someone in particular we may speak of him as being affected by avidya. When on the other hand we are required to point to the ignorance as it affects everyone in a mass scale there seems nothing wrong in speaking of the whole world being under the spell of a universal magic (māvā) as it were so long as we remember that any further reference to a magician (God) wielding this magical power should not be taken too seriously. If there is māyā (magical power), there should be a māyāvī (wielder of the magical power) no doubt and this maya has no power over the māyāvī although it may affect all others and in this respect it may be distinguished from avidva or ignorance which affects the person in whom it is found. But all this is picture thinking, one picture leading to another which may be of value only iu so far as it clarifies the point that there is an all-pervasive ignorance, the original sin as it were of christianiv, which seems to have a compelling character about it. This does not however permit us to delight in further speculations about its source and its realation, to individual ignorance (avidva), for that will be entering into what Sankara would call the domain of utpreksa (metaphysics) a look beyond) which he denounces in very clear terms. The talk of maya or magical power of God is in Śankara Vedanta only an indirect way of saving that everyone is numbed and dumbfounded as it were by the compelling language-habits which create multiplicity. There was thus nothing mystical or mysterious about the maya vada of Śańkara. The conception of māyā as an "indefinable mysterious stuff", as Prof. Dasgupta36 calls it, might have found a place in the later Advaita; it certainly has no place in the writings of the Acarva himself.

Now coming to vidyā we find that the controversies in later Advaita philosophies regarding the object and locus (viṣaya and āśraya) of avidyā have absolutely no place in the writings of the master himself. He is interested simply in pointing to an avidyā or ingorance which is all-pervasive and on which the

whole of our practical life is based to the fact that distinctions are created by language which describes and discriminates where actually there is non-duality. What is important from his point of view is to detect this linguiltic error, this confusion created by language, or the linguistic bondage as we may call it and to try to get rid of it through speechlessness or at least through referring language which aeproximates to a speechelss state. It is simply pointless in that case toask, To whom in particular does ignorance belong?, whether the error is mine, yours, or has its orgination in a superior being called God. One who raises such questions has simply misunderstood the entire progrzmme of Advaita philosophy, for the genetic and metaphysical questions leading to a sort ofl picture-thinking are of no concern to the philosopher. The question about the locus of avidya is as fanciful In its impli cation as the poet's question about the locus of fancy-"Tell me where is fancy is bred, or in the heart, or in the head?" But this certainly is not a philosophically significant question. That the question is not philosophically siginificant is evident from the frivolity with which the Acarya sets aside the whole issue in his Gita Bhasya. The most illuminating discussion between Sankara and the imaginary opponent in this context rurs as follows: "Whose is this avidya? By whomsover it is seen. By whom is it seen? As regards this we say-there is no gain in asking the question 'By whom is avidya seen?' For if avidya is perceived, you perceive also the one who has that avidya. When its possessor is perceived it is not proper to ask, 'whose is it?' When the possessor of cows is seen, there is no occasion for the question 'whose are the cows?' The illustration is not analogous to the case in point. Since the cows and their possessors are objects of immediate perception their relation is also an object of immediate perception and so the question has no meaning. But not so are avidya and its possessor, hence the question is not meaningless. What will you gain by knowing the relation of avidya to its possessor who is not directly perceived? Since avidya is the cause of evil, it should be got rid of. He who has avidya will get rid of it. Why, it is I who have avidya. Then you know avidva and the self who has it. (So that your question is mean76 G. C. Nayak

ingless)". (Atrāh sā avidyā kasy eti. Yasya dṛśyate tasyaiva Kasya dṛśyate iti. Atrocyate—avidyā Kasya dṛśyate iti pṛaśno nirarthakaḥ. Katham. Dṛśyate ced avidyā tadvāntanapi paśyasi, na ca tadvaty upalabhyane sā kasyeti pṛaśno yuktaḥ, na hi gomaty upa'abhyamāne gāvaḥ kasyeti pṛaśno arthavān bhavet. Nanu viṣamadṛāṣṭāntaḥ, gavām tadvataśca pṛatyakṣatvāt saṃb indho'pi pṛatyakṣa itipṛaśno nirarthakaḥ syat. Apṛatya kṣenāvidyāvatā vidyāsambandhe jñate kiṁ, tava syāt, Avidyāya anarthahetutvāt parihartavyā syāt. Yasyāvidyā sā tam parihariṣyati. Nanu mamaivāvidyā, Jānāsi tarhy avidya tadvāntam cātmānam.) Gītā Bhāṣya. 13·2.

A similar lack of philosophic conern characterises Sankara's use of pictures such as those of ghatakasa and mahakasa or or of the bimba and pratibituba to illustrate the relation between the ijva and Brahman. Put in the formal made this is a question of comparision between descriptive I or thou statements such as 'I am intelligent,' 'you are healthy' etc. and identity statements such a 'I am that (Aham Brahmasmi) or 'Thou art that' (Tat tvam asi). Since the later are self-complete in sense and absolutely secure from error, language may be said to have reached its perfection in such statements. And if the identity-statement is taken, as is done by Sankara, to be the ideal limit of language then in comparision descriptive I or thou statements would be nothing but defective or degenerate forms of this ideal limit. Once this is understood, it is immaterial whether one speaks in the ontological mode of iiva as a limitation (avaccheda), reflection (p:atbimba) or appearence (ābhāsa) of Brahman. Any picture should do so long as it only helps us understand this and is not allowed to mislead us to make further speculations in the metaphysical domain. The later Advaitins, however, failing to grasp the true purport of the master's writings, search in vain for a picture which can serve as the model for Advaita and finally stake the validity of their theories on one of the pictures or the other. Advaita which may be regarded as a consistent "battle againt the bewitchement of intelligence", to use a terminology from Wittgenstein, by means of picture thinking has fallen into disrepute at the hands of lesser geniuses by an admission of picture-thinking through the back-door while

refusing its entrance in the front. It is no wonder, therefore that Sankara indiscriminately uses the analogies of reflection, limitation, and appearance just to illustrate his point without taking them too seriously. Even Vacaspati who is regarded to be an advocate of limitationism (avachheda vāda) also uses the analogies of reflection at different places. And this is guite proper when we understand that it is not the pictures that are significent in this context so long as wa comprehend the nature of Brahman through a critical analysis of the meaning of akhandarthaka vakyas and get rid of the illusion of multiplicity created by the descriptive language. It is thus that the linguistic philosophy of Sankara is supposed to give us liberation in the form of illmination (Brahmavagati) not in any eschatological sense. This conception of jivanmukti as being identical with philosophical wisdom (jnana) obtained through the critical study of language (the meaning of the identity statements like Tat tvam asi is what is unique in the philosophy of Sankara. One who attains this wisdom does not for that matter become unfit for practical life based on distinctions created by ordinary language; he can go on as usual with his duties and obligations in the world. The only difference is that he cannot be said to belong to the world of multiplicity as before (Na yathāpūrvam Samsāritvam śakyam darsayitum) . Because of his philosophic wisdom he will have a detached outlook towards the multiple objects of the world which will be taken by him as being only of practical value (vyavaharika). Vyavaharika, however, is not valueless it may be useful and the jivanmukta doos not fight shy of this practical utility, he only develops a philosophical detachment for all that is practically useful or preyas as distinguished from śreyas as the Upanisad would call it. To put it in the linguistic mode, the jivanmukta is a philosophically enlightened person whose use of ordinary relational language is based not on ignorance but knowlegde and full comprehension of the nature and functionfof language. He is simply free from the linguistic bondage, from being captivated by the pictures created by different forms of language. Such a conception of moksa has naturally got nothing to do with the fall of the body; one can be free through jñāna while alive, rather jivanmukti alone is

intelligible in this content. To utilise certaine xpressions of Wittgenstein for making the point clear the fly is simply shown the way out of the flly-bottle and the question of its freedom after death is naturally irrelevant here.

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- 5. A. J. Ayer, The problem of knowledge (Penguin Books, 1969)
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 - 8. Cf. Vedānta Paribhāṣā, "Iha khaludharmārthakāmamokṣākhyesu caturvidha puruṣārthesu mokṣa evaparama puruṣārthaḥ."
 - 9. Cf. Adhyasa Bhasya, "Asyanarthahetoh prahanaya atmaikatva-vidyapratipattaye sarve vedanta arabhyante
- Cf. my paper "The philosophy of Aruni and Yajnavalkya—An Analysis' Presidential Address of History of philosophy section of the 46th session of the Indian Philosophical Congress, 1972.
 - 11. Cf. Bhāmatī, 1·1·1· "Na kevalam jnānamisyate kintvāgatim sāksatkāram jurvadavagati paryantam san" and 1·1·12· "Brahmānubhavo Brahmasākṣātkārahparamapururṣāthah"
 - 12. Radhakrishnan, op. cit., p. 510
 - 13. Cf. Vivekacūdāmani, 162, "Dehendriyādāvasati bhramoditam vidvānāhātām na jahāti yāvat, tāvānna tasyāsti vimuktivārtāpyastvos a vedāntanayāntadarsi."
 - 14. Ayer, op. cit., p. 33.
 - 15. Cf. commentary on Brahma sūtras, 2·1·14. "Anrtatvat kāryavastunah""Ekatvamevaikam pāramārthikam darśayati", "Mithyājňānaviirmbhitam ca nānātvam" etc.

- 16. Potter, op. cit., p. 182.
- 17. Cf. Gita Bhāṣya "Yad viṣayā buddhih na vyabhicarati tat sat". Also Brahmasūtra Bhasya, 2·1·11. "Eka rupeņa hyavasthito yorthan sa paramārthān, loke tadvisayam jnānam samyaghjnānamityucyate-yathāgniruṣṇa iti".
- 18. Vivekacudamaņi, 60
- 19. Cf. Brahmasütra Bhāṣys, 2·1·11, "Samyagjnane puruṣaṇam vipratiranupapanna, Tarkajnananam tvanyonyavirodhat prasiddhav ipratipattih."
 - 20. L. Wittgenstein, Philosophical Investigations, Sect. 115.
 - 21. Cf. Brahma sūtra Bhāṣya, 2·1·13, "Yadyapi śrutih pramāṇam svaviṣaye bhavati, tathāpi pramānāntareṇa viṣayāpahariṇyaprā bhavitumarhati..... Ata idamayuktam yatprmāṇantaraprasiddhārthabādhanam śrutena."
 - 22 Here I have utilised some of the materials of my Presidential address of History of Philosophy Section of the 46th session of the Indian Philosophical Congress.
 - 23. Ayer, op. cit. p. 52.
 - 24. "Buddhirūpalabdhiinānamityanarthantaram" Nyāya sūtras, 1 · 1 · 15
 - For a detailed analysis of the problem see my paper, can there be any Indeterminate perception (Nirvikalpaka pratyaksa)?' Darshana International, Vol. X, No. 2, April, 70.
 - 26. It is to be noted however that for the sake of convenience at some places in the present lecture the word knowledge is used in the wider sense of jnāna,
 - 27. It is interesting to note that Śańkara himself anticipated and replied to some such possible objection when, for example, he remarks "Naceyamavagatiranarthiakā......Śakyam vaktum, avidyānivarttipha'adarśanāt"...
 - 28. Radhakrishnan, Indian Philosophy Vol. II
 - S. N. Dasgupta, A History of Indian Philosophy (Cambridge University press, 1952) Vol. II, p. 73.
 - 30. Cf. Vivekacūdāmāni, 108, "Avyaktanāmni, parameśaśaktih anan-yavidyā trigunatmika para, kāryānumeyā sudhiyayaiva māyā yayā jagat sarvamidam prasūyate."- and Brahmasūtra Bhṣāya, 2·1·14 "Sarvajnasyesvarasyātmabhuta iva avidyākalpite nāma rūre...... sarvjna syeśvarasya māyāśaktih prakrti iti ca śrutismrtyorabhilāpyete."

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31. Cf. Brahmasūtra bhāṣya, 2·2·14." Avidyākrta nāmarūpopādhi anurodhiśyaro bhavati".

- 32. Cf. "Atasmin tadbuddhih" Adhyasa Bhasya.
- 33. Cf. Brahmasutra Bhasya 2.1.14, "Vacaiva kevalamastityarabhyate".
- 34. Cf. Adhyāsa Bhāṣya, "Tametamavidyäkhyamatmānātmanoritaretarādhyāsam puraskrtya sarve pramāṇa prameyaa vyavahārā laukikā vaidikāsca pravrittāh".
- 35. Cf. Kathopanisad bhāṣya, "Aho atigambhira duravagāhya vicitra māyā ceyam yadayam sarvo jantuh paramārthatah paramarthasatatto vpyevam bohdyamānoham paramātmeti na grhnati.
- 36. Dasgupata, op. cit., p. 73.