## JAINA CONTRIBUTION TO INDIAN POETICS

I. In the histories of Sanskrit Poetics available today, though some Jaina authors are referred to in passing, we have neither a full survey of all the works nor an objective assessement of them taken as a whole. Even in exhaustive surveys like that of Krishnamachariar, the major works on poetics by ancient Jaina authors in languages other than Sanskrit are not to be found. The object of this paper is to give a brief outline of the Jaina contribution to the development of literary theories in India, taking into consideration some of the major works in Sanskrit as well as in old Kannada.

Jinasena's Mahāpurāṇa (9th Century A.D.) records in unmistakable terms the tradition of the Jainas that Alankāra-sāstra or science of poetics, including topics like alankāras, two mārgas and ten guṇas, was revealed by the Adi Tirthankara himself for the benefit of humanity:

Upamādinalaṅkārān sanmārgadvayavistaram | Dasaprāṇānalaṅkārasaṅgrahe vibhur abhyadhāt | |

(XVI. 115)

It is again in this *Mahī purā na* that we get for the first time an illuminating explanation of the word 'vānmaya'. Jinasena says that the three disciplines, viz., grammar, prosody and poetics collectively form vānmaya:

Padavidyāmadhicchandovicitim vāgalankṛtim | Trayisamuditāmetām tadvido vānmayam viduḥ | |

(Ibid. XVI, 111).

As Dr. Raghavan has pointed out, the first clear enumeration of nine  $k\bar{\alpha}vya$ -rasas including  $pras\bar{\alpha}nta$  and substituting  $vr\bar{i}danaka$  for  $bhay\bar{\alpha}naka$  is to be had in one of the of the very ancient Jaina  $\bar{\alpha}gamas$  viz.,  $Anuyogadv\bar{\alpha}ra$ -s $\bar{\alpha}tra$  (Agamodaya Samiti Series Ed. P. 134):—

Nava kavvarasā pannattā, tam jahā—
Viro singāro abbhuo a rodddo a hoi boddhavvo |
Velanāo bibhaccho hāso kaluņo pasanto a | |

(The Number of Rasas, Second Ed. p. 158).

It has been estimated that this canonical stra cannot be later than the 5th century A.D. Possibly it is much older. In the Jaina poetic tradition as recorded by several old Kannada poets like Ranna (10th century A.D.), Jinendra has only one rasa and that is santa.

"Ninage rasamonde sõntame jinendra"
(Ajita-tirthankara-purõna-tilaka, Jina-stuti).

While praising Sarasvati, the same poet states figuratively that her ornaments are not sixteen, but thirty-six, alluding to the thirty-six lak sanas, as against sixteen samskaras:—

Padinārallavalankriyāracane

Mūvattāru nerpaṭṭavu /....( op. cit. ).

The doctrine of *lakṣaṇas* seen in Bharata was thus kept alive in the Jaina tradition, though it went out of vogue in later Sanskrit poetics.

The Jaina religion naturally gave the highest importance to tranquility or prasanta as the highest value in spiritual life. The same was imported openly into the field of poetics too; so openly that the Jainas went even to the extent of branding even secular poets like Kālidāsa as kukavis because of their excessive devotion for spingāra. Jinasena, uses all his wits in rewriting Kālidāsa's Meghadūta in such a way that each line of Kālidāsa breathing the spirit of vipralambha-spingāra is transformed to yield the sānta significance with the help of two or three more new lines added to each line by Jinasena himself. It is the famous Pārsvābhyudaya. In this Kāvya we have the out-and-out declaration that 'kāvyadharma' i.e. Kavisamaya has forced kukavis like Kālidāsa to regard spingāra as satya though it is asatya in fact:—

Syād vā satyam kukaviracitam kāvyadharmānurodhāt Saty apy evam sakalam uditam jāghatīty eva yasmāt / Sabhrūbhangaprahitanayanaiņ kāmilakşyeşv amoghaistasyārambhas caturavanitāvibhramair eva siddhaņ / /

(Párśvábhyudaya, III. 11).

This presents a new attitude towards poetry as such and gives for the first time an unqualified importance to religious instruction as the foremost concern of poetry. Although Bhāmaha and other Hindu theorists had allowed some room for ethical instruction incidentally in poetry, the general Hindu attitude is represented by the clear-cut statement in the Vishnudharmottara-Purāna:

Dharmārthakāmamokṣāṇāṁ
Śāstraṁ syād upadeṣakaṁ /.....

Tad eva kāvyam ity uktaṁ
Copadeṣam vinā kṛtaṁ // (Ch. XV. 1-2).

The dividing line between  $s\bar{a}stra$  and  $k\bar{a}vya$  was thus none other than upadesa or ethical instruction. The Hindu theorists stood for secular poetry, while the Jaina theorists, like the Buddhists, pleaded strongly for a new tradition of religious and ethical poetry. In practice too, we find that almost all the Jaina literature in Sanskrit, Prakrit and old Kannada, is more religious than secular. This new tradition of pure religious classical literature left its strong influence on later development of vernacular literatures.

II. The Rāṣtrakūṭa king Nṛpatunga (9th century A.D.) is credited with the authorship of the first work on poetics in old Kannada, the Kavirājamārga. The work is more or less a free adaptation of Bhāmaha's Kāvyalankāra and, much more, of Daṇḍin's Kāvyādarṣa. But it begins with Jinastuti and has some unique ideas, not found in Bhāmaha and Daṇḍin. His definition of poetry, for instance, takes us beyond the words of Bhāmaha and Daṇḍin to the bhāva of the poet on the one hand and to the viseṣa of sabdas as well as alankāras relating to arthavyakti.

Kavibhā vakṛtāneka —
pravibhā gaviviktas ūktamā rgam kā vyam |
savise şasabdaracanam
vividhā rthavyaktivartitā lankā ram ||

What is still more interesting is his treatment of mārgas and their gunas in relation to particular rasas, a fact not found either in Bhāmaha or Dandin. More surprising is his nomenclature of the pathetic sentiment as karunarasa in place of the usual karunarasa. Nīpatunga realises for the first time that mārgas are dependent on rasa. There is no clue in the book that he had read Rudrata or

Anandavardhana. Hence all the more reason that Nrpatunga should get the credit for this progressive doctrine:

Bagedu mõrgadvitayamam gatigalam
Praguṇa-guṇagaṇodayarkaļ vitarkadim /
Sogayisuvantu vacanaracaneyim
Negaļdire berasi peļge rasaviseṣadoļ // (II. 98).

Virarasam sphutoktiyinudāratamam karunārasam mṛdū—ccāraneyindamaobhutarasam nibidoktigaļindamalte sṛ—ngārarasam samantu sukumārataroktigaļim prasannagam—bhīrataroktiyim prakaṭamakke rasam satatam

prasantamum. (II. 99).

utsavadinde hāsyarasamā madhuroktigaļindamalte bī bhatsarasāntaram sithilabandhanadim satatam bhayānako dyatsurasam karam viṣamabandhanadim nṛpatungadeva-mī rgotsavamūrjitoktigaļinakkati-raudrarasam rasāvaham.

(II. 100).

'After considering carefully the procedure of the two mārgas, the poet should so compose his work that it will give the impression of beauty to learned critics. And he should select each of them in tune with particular rasas as indicated below.

The guṇas of spuṭatā and udāratā are appropriate for virarasa, Mṛdutā suits karuṇarasa most, and compactness (slesa) is best for adbhuta, sukumāratā is suited for sṛṇgāra; prasāda and gāmbhirya go well with the delineation of prasānta.

Utsava is the occasion for the hāsyarasa wherein Madhurokti preponderates; sithilabandha favours bībhatsarasa; vişamabandha is helpful in bhayānaka. Ūrjitokti is best suited for raudrarasa'.

We cannot dismiss his karuṇārasa as a scribal variation of karuṇarasa. For, the example cited by him describes the virahotkaṇṭhā of the heroine and the hero is called upon to show pity on her (III. 191). The sthāyibhāva involved here is karuṇā or dayā (pity) as against śoka or suffering.

An even more intriguing tenet of Nṛpatunga is his reference to dhvani as an alaṅkāra and his description of it as 'based on śabda though defective in artha'. His illustration of it is as follows: "A pair of animiṣas (fish) is shining in the lotus. What a wonder!" The original is as follows:—

Dhvaniyembudalankāram

Dhvaniyisugum sabdadindamarthade dūsyam /

Nenevudidanintu kamalado—

lanimisavugamoppi torpudintidu codvam // (III. 208).

This reference is of unique interest to scholars because it shows an awareness of *dhvani* as a poetical concept in far off Karnatak even before the *Dhvanyalōka* reached that remote province from Kashmir. It provides an uncontestable proof to the fact that *dhvani* was samāmnātapārva among literary theorists even before Ānandavardhana. Of course his idea of it is too hazy and mistaken to be considered seriously.

III. The next old Kannada theorists is also a Jaina. He is Nāgavarma II, the author of the Kāvyāvalokana (Circa, 11th Century A.D.). Though he expressly acknowledges his indebtedness to Bhāmaha, Daṇḍin, Vāmana and Rudraṭa, he has some new points of his own to add. His definition of poetry and idea of sabda and artha are unique:—

Ire śabdārthaṅgaļ ta—
Tparateyinadu kāvyamadaroļucitaikārthān |
Taravāci śabdamavabhā—
Sarupamahlādakāriyappudadarthaṁ | |

None of the early Sanskrit, theorists explain the nature of  $s\bar{a}hitya$ , the unique relation of sabda and artha in poetry. Nāgavarma explains for the first time that it is  $tatparat\bar{a}$  or exclusive aesthetic concern. Regarding the nature of sabda, again unique to poetry, none of the early Sanskrit theorists tell us anything important, including Rudrata who is the model for Nāgavarma. They just mention that it should be meaningful, and without defects besides possessing excellences. The principle underlying the avoidance of defects or the inclusion of excellences goes unexplained. But Nāgavarma rightly points out that aucitya or propriety is the underlying principle of all literary usage of words. He regards

artha again in aesthetic terms by characterising it as āhlādakāri in so many words. His addition that artha is avabhāsarāpa hints at his new philosophy of poetry comparable with the theory of vaiyākaraṇas that pratibhā is vākyārtha. (The word 'arthāntara' in the verse cited above does not mean 'another meaning'; it means 'one single meaning' like the word 'śabdāntara' used in his definition of śabdasleṣa). There is absolutely no trace of Nāgavarma's familiarity with Navya ālankārikas. Hence his ideas become doubly important. He does not refer to dhvani.

Another outstanding contribution of Nāgavarma to Indian poetics is his characterisation of  $r\bar{t}ti$  as the śarīra or body of poetry and rasa as the  $J\bar{t}va$  or its life-breath. He adds significantly that though there may be no  $\bar{a}lank\bar{a}ras$ , so highly praised by the learned, the infusion of  $r\bar{t}tis$  and profusion of rasas will make a composition very enjoyable:

Rīti vinūtavastukītigoppuva mai rasabhāvavītti-ni— Rnītivye jīvamantadarinanyitanappa kavīsvaram budha | Vrātamoraldu biccaļisi naccuvalankriti kūḍadirdodam Rītiyoļonde peļvudu rasam biḍe bandhurakāvyabandhamam | |

This is indeed a new synthesis brought about for the first time between  $r\bar{i}ti$  and rasa even in the absence of a knowledge of *dhvani*.

IV. We might now turn to Jaina writers on Sanskrit poetics. These have been discussed in detail by modern scholars and do not therefore need any introduction. The first place among these is reserved for Hemachandra, whose Kāvyānusāsana with his own commentary is noteworthy for more reasons than one. modelled after the Kāvyāprakasana, his brilliant text-book covers all the topics of poetics thoroughgoingly. This is the first book to include dramatic theory in its purview and sets and example to later writers like Visvanātha and Vidyānātha. Hemachandra has also often quoted in extenso from old works which are now lost, like Bhattatauta's Kāvyakautuka and Lollata's commentary on Nātvasāstra. Sometimes he gives reference to sources not available to us elsewhere. For example, the verse Lāvanyadravinavyayo.... is cited by Anandavardhana as a most likely composition of Dharmakirti. Even Abhinavagupta does not explain in his Locana regarding the exact work of Dharmakirti in question. But Hemachandra tells us that it is from the concluding portion of viniscayav<sub>1</sub>tti by Dharmakirti:—

Tathā cāyam viniscayavṛttyante Dharmakirtyācāryasya sloka iti prasiddhih /

(VI. under Anyokti).

In his treatment of alankāras as well as dhvani, he often cites new examples not found in Mammata and Anandavardhana.

The next Jaina writer deserving our notice is Vāgbhata I. (12th century A.D.). He follows in the main the older tradition of poetics, and brings about a synthesis like Nāgavarma between all the well known concepts viz., guṇa, alankāra, rīti and rasa. His whole book is written in verse like the Kāvyaḍarsa and often the first line of his śloka forms the definition and the second line, its illustration. It was so famous as a convenient text-book that Mallinātha in his commentary over Raghuvamsa etc., has often referred to him. One speciality of the book is, however, the lengthy treatment of kavisiksā.

Vāgbhata II hailing from Mewar (also 12th century A.D.) has also called his work by the name Kāvyanuśāsana. But this work is a very short one when compared with Hemachandra's. It deals at length with kavisamayas and kaviśikṣā exercises. One most interesting feature of the book is his illustrations for Kāvyadoṣas which are taken from popular Mahākavis. e.g. "dilīpa iti rājenduv induh kṣīranidhāv iva" (Raghuvamśa) illustrates the defect punarukta "mātsaryamutsārya vicārya kāryam..." (Bhartṛhari) illustrates sandigdha. He is aware of Ānandavardhana and refers to him for details about dhvani; yet he brings under paryāyokta all the varieties of vastudhvani. He even gives examples, not found in any other work, on dhvani. Its brevity is its chief merit.

The Kāvyakalpalatāvṛtti by Arisimha (14th century A.D.) is a work out-and-out on kavisikṣā, dealing with Sanskrit poetic composition as a mechanical craft which could be taught. Its four chapters are devoted to the topics of Chandassiddhi, śabadasiddhi, ślesaṣiddhi and arthasiddhi. We get interesting details here of the tuition offered: e.g., (1) practice of Indravajṛā metrewith one syllable—

Kākā kakakā kakakā kakākā

Kiki kikiki kikiki kikiki /

Kūkū kukūkū kukukū kukūkū

Kamkam kakamkam kakamkam // (I. 2)

(2) a specimen of samasyāpurāṇa:—
Kastūrī jāyate kasmāt
Ko hanti kariṇāṁ kulaṁ |
Kiṁ kuryāt kātaro yuddhe
Mṛgāt siṁhaḥ palāyate | |

The Alankāra-mahodadhi of Maladhāri Narendraprabha, produced in the court of Vastupāla, is a comprehensive text-book on all aspects of Sanskrit poetics with copious standard illustrations. He sometimes adds to the varieties of well known concepts. For example, he gives for the first time the following new sub-varieties of vṛttyanuprāsa:—Karnāṭī, Kauntalī, Kaungi, Kaunkanī, Vānavāsikā, Trāvanī, Māthurī, Mātsi and Māgadhī.

The Nāṭyadarpaṇa by Ramachandra and Guṇachandra is a standard work on dramaturgy. It gives a novel view of rasa that it is sukha-duḥkhātmaka and controverts the usual thesis that all rasa including karuṇa is ānandātmaka.

The Alankāracintāmani by Ajitasena is a late work from an author hailing from South Kanara district of the present Mysore State. It is influenced very much by the Pratāparudrīya of Vidyānātha. Like the Prataparudrīya, all its examples are in praise of Bharata cakravartī. It abounds in details relating to citra-kāvya varieties.

For further Jaina writers on Sanskrit poetics, I should refer the interested scholars to a very informative article in Hindi by Pandit Amrutlal Shastri on Jaina Alankara Sahitya published in the Acharya Bhikshu Smriti Grantha, Jaina Shvetambara Terapanthi Mahasabha, Calcutta, 1961, Vol. pp. 199 ff.

V. It will be seen even from the above brief survey how the Jaina contribution to Indian poetics is substantial, qualitatively as well as quantitatively. They have not merely given compilations of earlier material. They have added their own thoughts also. It is mainly in this field that the Jaina contribution has succeeded in transcending the narrow boundaries of religion and becoming the common property of Indians at large.

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